The Nation.

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The Week.

Bossism proved to be in high disfavor at the polls on Tuesday. In this city, McClellan—certainly with the support of decent men of both parties who feareed Hearst's triumph, possibly by the aid of fraudulent votes, as Hearst contends and threatens to test in the courts—obtained a narrow plurality of less than 4,000 votes. Jerome, on the other hand, though heavily weighted by the court's refusal to place his name on the Republican ticket after Flammer's withdrawal and the machine's recantation, succeeds by 11,000. This victory, we need not say, is of enormous value as an example of independent candidacy, and as checking Tammany where the need is (in the very nature of a criminal organization) greatest. No personal struggle throughout the country has excited so much interest, or enlisted so much voluntary pecuniary backing in places far remote from New York, as Mr. Jerome's. As he figured on many ballots along with Hearst, a recount to the latter's advantage would add to his total; and the recount is not to be decried because it might give us the most disreputable and dangerous Mayor New York has ever been saddled with. *Fiat justitia.*

That other sink of municipal iniquity, Philadelphia, has, to Pennypacker's grief and amazement, redeemed itself from the thieves who, in Secretary Root's parlance, masqueraded under the Republican party name, by some 44,000 majority. The Reform party also lending its support to William H. Berry, Democratic and Prohibition candidate for State Treasurer, he was elected by 100,000 majority, and it may well be that some ventilation of his predecessors in that office will ensue. Most significant of all, perhaps, is the Republican overthrow in Ohio, where Governor Herrick and Boss Cox go under—the latter never to emerge, as he publicly manifests. Secretary Taft, who straddled on these worthies, repudiating Cox while sustaining Herrick, has here food for reflection, as has Senator Foraker, who just escaped allying himself also with the now shattered Durham gang in Philadelphia. A national Te-Deum deserves to be sung in the case of Maryland, which has spewed out the Poe disfranchising amendment. May we not say of Gorman, what the South Carolina chivalry humanely reported of Colonel Shaw of the 54th Massachusetts (colored) Regiment, that he is "buried with his niggers"?

The Treasury ended the month of October with expenditure running even more heavily beyond revenue than it did a year ago. Excess of expenditure for the month, as reported, was $4,857,000; in October, 1904, it was $3,952,000. This comparison is more significant than the simple fact of a deficit in the month when interest payments are large. As a matter of fact, the October public revenue this year was greater by $1,500,000 than that of October last year, but expenditure showed an increase of $2,400,000, of which amount two-thirds fall to the account of army and navy outlay. Since the previous fiscal year ended last June, expenses have risen $3,100,000 over the same period a year ago. But for a sudden expansion of $12,000,000 in customs receipts, the deficit of last autumn would be portentously increased. All experience, however, has taught how unsafe is dependence on the customs revenue as a basis for constant increase in the scale of expenditure. Customs receipts fall suddenly in the vicissitudes of trade—the $11,800,000 decrease of the fiscal year 1904 is one case in point; the $71,000,000 shrinkage in the fiscal year 1894 is another—whereas a schedule of expenditures, once fixed, does not come down along with revenue. Thus, in 1904, expenditures increased $76,000,000 in the face of falling income.

President Roosevelt's famous "muzzling order" to his Cabinet officers turns out to be the most innocuous document ever issued by a Chief Magistrate. The letter appeared on the face of it to be a plain request to the members of the Cabinet not to talk for publication—the indefatigable Secretary Loeb would relieve them of that onerous duty. But the members of the Cabinet speedily informed Mr. Roosevelt that they enjoyed talking for publication; they do not want to turn the job over to the accomplished Mr. Loeb; they see no reason why they should sit mum while their inferiors in rank discourse wisely on the affairs of the nation. Having learned their sentiment, the President gracefully acquiesced. Far be it from him to intimate to any Cabinet officer when he should speak and when hold his tongue. Equally abhorrent to the President is the notion of shutting his dear friends, the newspaper correspondents, from avenues of information and from the pleasure of Cabinet society. In fine, the President meant nothing more than to express a pious hope that a member would not discuss with the reporters Cabinet action on any Department except his own.

The appointment of Charles A. Stillings as Public Printer promises well for the reform of the office. Mr. Stillings is a practical printer; he has had experience in administration, and he is cordially endorsed by large printing firms in New York and Boston. Above all, he will not be hampered by political obligations. The ablest man in the world would make a failure in the office were he to sacrifice it to the demands of party bosses. Of late the incumbents have not displayed conspicuous ability, and too many of them have regarded the subordinate positions as so much patronage. Under the recently dismisse F. W. Palmer, conditions had become simply intolerable. Mr. Stillings will find public opinion on this subject fully aroused and ready to resent any attempt to raid him or unload political hacks upon him. He will be strongly backed by the President, who ordered a special investigation, and who is fully alive to the necessity of economical and efficient management. Thus he takes up the work under uncommonly favorable circumstances. Not for years has a Public Printer enjoyed such an opportunity.

The annual report of the Military Secretary of the Army is singular in being wholly divested of that optimistic official tone so characteristic of public documents. He gives the actual number of desertions during the year as 6,533, or more than one in every ten of the 63,022 men. Of these 63,000 soldiers, 22,254 were discharged on expiration of their enlistment, and 9,460 by reason of disability or because of a court-martial sentence, while 189 were retired, and 377 died or were killed. In all, 38,813 men, or more than 61 per cent. of the entire enrolment, left the army in a year. In other words, if their places have been filled, more than 61 per cent. of the men in the army are raw recruits. Undoubtedly, some of the men discharged reenlisted, but not many, for the great majority of men return to civil life as soon as possible. When it is remembered that of those in the service one in every six is reported by the Surgeon-General to be ill with disease due to immorality, the condition of the army cannot be said to be a very happy or satisfactory one. Indeed, Congress would seem to be justified in instituting an investigation. It should take note of the able annual report of Brig.-Gen. J. M. Lee, who blames the absence of officers from their troops, the lack of a beer canteen, and the want of care in recruiting, for the present evil days of the service. In one case he knows of a boy of seventeen who was falsely enlisted as being twenty-two, only to desert at once—but no one was punished. Between the lines

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one reads that lack of discipline and accountability would also figure among Gen. Lee's reasons were his a confidential instead of a public document.

Though the Government has more applicants for most of its jobs than it knows what to do with, it has been in unusual straits this year to get suitable men to take the positions it is especially anxious to fill. The War Department optimistically expected to secure officers for the Philippine Constabulary at $1,100 salaries from the graduates of agricultural colleges and military schools, but a diligent canvass secured only four-fifths of one applicant to each vacancy. Meanwhile, the Isthmian Canal Commission is scouring the world for persons so unfortunately situated at home that they are willing to go to work at Panama. And this is saying nothing of the problem of enlistments for the army and navy. There must be an inequality somewhere. If only the work of a clerk at Washington could be made as hard as that of a constabulary lieutenant in Luzon, the local politician's son might be indifferent which one the Congressman bestowed on him; but so long as an unskilled man is paid more for opening and shutting a door in the Capitol than for toiling in the tropical sun at Culebra, the authorities must expect some variations in the distribution of applicants. If the Keep Commission can really make the District of Columbia a place of terror to loafers, the latter may clamor to be sent to the out-of-the-way places.

Speaker Cannon's reported antagonism to a bill for railway rate regulation is plausibly explained by his declaration not that he will unqualifiedly oppose rate legislation, but that he will oppose it until the Senate has acted. Last year the House passed a bill, but the Senate killed it; and now Mr. Cannon wants to know what the Senate is really willing to do before he lets the House waste its time. In short, Mr. Cannon and his friends seem to be sparring for position. The Senate, or those members of it who do not fall in with the President's desire, naturally prefer to let the House frame the bill. Then they can devote as many months as they please to the task of picking flaws in it, and deciding that, after all, the measure is too radical. The members of the House who are not eager for regulation—and probably Speaker Cannon himself will not die of chagrin if nothing is done—are ready to let the Senate take the plunge. This done, the House can shake its head sadly, lament because the Senate has betrayed the people into the hands of the railways, and throw out the bill on the ground that it is feeble and ineffective. It is a pretty game.

President Robbins of the Armour Car Lines may be within his legal rights in refusing to answer questions put by the Interstate Commerce Commission. He can afford to hire skilled lawyers who will instruct him in all the technicalities and evasions of the law, civil and criminal. But there is still a question whether a concern which operates 12,500 cars can justly plead that it is engaged in a purely private business. The contracts between the railways and the car lines are ingenious devices for whip-sawing the shipper. If the California orange-grower complains that he pays too much for laying down his fruit in New York, the railway manager politely assures him that the road is helpless. It cannot redress the wrong, because the freight charge is very reasonable, and the excess has been extorted by the Armours. When the appeal is carried to the Armours, the reply is that the icing and other charges are not exorbitant, that the Armours have no control over the high freight rates, that the Armours are a private company; and what are you going to do about it? This plea of impotence and impudence cannot be tolerated. The Armour Car Lines, whatever their legal standing, are actually engaged in interstate commerce. The oppression and injustice of the monopoly are things of which Congress will take cognizance. If the Commission has no jurisdiction, a committee of Congress can lay bare the details of an iniquitous compact to extort from the great majority of shippers the last possible cent, and to favor certain insiders.

The dying declaration of the self-killed cashier of the Enterprise National Bank of Allegheny, to the effect that "Bull" Andrews, one of Quay's old lieutenants, had "worked my ruin," adds another heavy burden to the load of infamy which the Pennsylvania machine is now carrying. Andrews was the general called back hastily from New Mexico not long ago to rally the demoralized forces of the Penrose organization. It was for his personal benefit, as a prospective Senator, that Quay was believed to have advocated so long and uncompromisingly the four-State bill in Congress. Pennsylvania politics have moved far from the cheerful times of the boss's promise to "shake the plum-tree." Those fat years have ended in a series of the most sordid of tragedies. A Philadelphia contemporary printed the other day a calendar of crimes, suicides, and flights from the country, which had resulted from the alliance of business and politics in the Keystone State. Cashier Clark's confession, coming at a time when the ring is putting forth every effort to appear in a respectable light, and is even spending large sums on advertising designed for its own exculpation, may serve at least one good purpose as a lesson, if another is needed, of what the old régime has meant.

That the wreck of a bank in western Pennsylvania should frustrate the hopes of a Territory in the extreme Southwest seems illogical, but stranger things have happened in politics. New Mexico had not only had her senior Senator picked out in advance by Quay and delivered in advance, when W. H. Andrews moved to that Territory, but definitely approved the choice last fall when it elected him delegate to Congress. Certainly, the accounts of the Enterprise Bank failure would be poor credentials for a member of the most dignified body in the world. But what is the course to be pursued now? Oklahoma and Indian Territory, to whose admission as a single State there is no opposition, have been kept so long waiting on the Southern Territories that they are again agitating separate Statehood. It is of record that several important Arizona newspapers which formerly stood out against amalgamation with New Mexico, have come around to the two-State plan. But amalgamation would not settle the issue raised by the Andrews scandal. New Mexico can outvote Arizona, and, if each of the present Territories were to be given one Senator, he might still be chosen.

Since our recent comment on the refusal of the Northwestern Mutual Life Insurance Company to pay over money to politicians in order to save the Union, our attention has been called to the similar stand by the Mutual Benefit Life Insurance Company of Newark, N. J. The Insurance Commissioner of Tennessee recently wrote to President Frelinghuysen of that company asking for specific information as to any gifts made by its officers during the last ten years for political purposes, or any expenditures to defeat or to advance insurance legislation. In reply, Mr. Frelinghuysen made affidavit that during this period no contribution had been made by or on behalf of his company to any political party or individual candidate, or to any association or organization, or for the purpose of advancing or defeating legislation. Its one gift was $2,500—voted by the board of directors—for the sufferers by the Galveston flood, and its total legislative legal expenditures were $651.58, comprising five separate payments. Every cent of this small sum was paid for counsel fees to regular representatives of the company. This admirable record does more than testify to the fidelity of their trust of the officers of the Mutual Benefit Life. It proves conclusively the needlessness of the vast corruption expenditures of the guilty New York companies. If the

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Mutual Benefit Life and the Northwestern can thrive without buying legislatures, every other company can.

Connecticut newspapers are charging the town clerks of that State with being in a conspiracy to defeat the purposes of the corrupt-practices act, passed by the Legislature last spring at Hartford. A majority of these officials have so far failed to file with the Secretary of State the returns of expenses incurred by candidates, and they are supported by the chairman of the Republican State Central Committee, who has publicly said that he is "not in sympathy with the enforcement of the law as to returns." But it seems probable that public sentiment will compel its observance. John A. Wright, who was elected a probate judge at Westbrook on October 2, was fined $25 by a police magistrate on Wednesday week for failing to make a return of election expenses within fifteen days after the poll. Wide publicity is being given this case as a warning to the other candidates in the October election. Judge Wright declared that he filed his statement with the town clerk, who, acting apparently in accord with most of the other town clerks throughout the State, refused to forward it. But the authorities very properly declined to allow Mr. Wright to escape the responsibility. These October town elections were of relatively slight importance, yet they furnish a test of the new law, and if the town clerks ignore its provisions now, they will do so after the more important elections when the influence of a Bulkeley or a Fessenden is behind them.

In dismissing Hinckley Gilbert Mitchell from the professorship of Hebrew and Old Testament Exegesis at the School of Theology of Boston University, the trustees of the institution are exercising their liberty. The bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church have condemned Professor Mitchell as a heretic, and they are fully entitled to have their teachers of theology as narrow and ignorant as they choose. If well-trained scholars refuse to accept the old dogmas, the supply of mediocrities who will have no troublesome doubts is absolutely inexhaustible. Mr. Mitchell has long lain under suspicion. His first step from the straight path was taking a doctor's degree at Leipzig. A man who studies Semitic languages in Germany is almost sure to become tainted with the higher criticism. This taint Mr. Mitchell has never been able to eradicate, and as a result he has accepted some of the conclusions of modern scholarship. His views are grotesquely out of place in a theological school whose purpose is to maintain the tenets of the eighteenth century; and Professor Mitchell ought to be as glad to go as the bishops are to get rid of him. The change may reinforce the orthodoxy of Methodist students of divinity, render them less accessible to ideas, and therefore more acceptable to their ecclesiastical superiors. But it will hardly strengthen popular confidence in the Boston University School of Theology. People will leap to the inevitable conclusion that the professors are not expected to search for the truth; they are to subscribe once for all to the faith as delivered, and thereafter they are resolutely to close their minds.

Negotiations with the Canadian Government are now beginning with a view to the preservation of Niagara Falls by international action. Whether it will prove legal and feasible for the two general governments to supersede, as is now suggested, the local jurisdiction of the State of New York and the Province of Ontario, remains to be seen; but it may be true that this form of control would be a better safeguard against further encroachments. The gravity of the present menace can hardly be too often emphasized. As Dr. John M. Clarke, the State Geologist, wrote last spring: "The two American and three Canadian companies now in operation or about to operate, when producing to their charter limits, will abstract 48,000 cubic feet per second. That amount will bring the water level to the bottom of the river at the American shore." Hence the recommendation of the International Waterways Commission, a fortnight ago, was that steps be taken to "prevent any corporate rights or franchises being granted or renewed by either Federal, State, or provincial authority . . . until this Commission is able to collect the information necessary to report fully upon the conditions and uses of these waters." The request for such a practical truce between the friends of the Falls and the business interests seeking to exploit them cannot well be refused.

Mr. Balfour appeared to advantage in his reply on Monday to the appeals (mingled with threats) of the London unemployed. Led by a Labor member of Parliament, they marched to Downing Street, expecting, no doubt, all kinds of soothing promises from a Premier whose Government is tottering; but Mr. Balfour met them in manly and wholesome fashion. Abounding in sympathy, and expressing the hope that private charity would make haste to relieve absolute suffering, he held out no hope that the Government would do anything to "make work" for the unemployed. He knows, if impulsive sentimentalists do not, that when you begin to recognize this alleged *droit au travail*, you never can end; that, on those terms, the unemployed will multiply faster than places can be made for them; and that the truest kindness, as well as the soundest statesmanship, consists in throwing back responsibility upon individual effort and private enterprise. But imagine a Hearst in Balfour's shoes! He would have promised (before election) the earth and the fulness thereof.

Such excesses as are still reported from Russia were, perhaps, to be expected after the extreme tension which preceded the Czar's surrender. The most serious troubles, as in Odessa, seem to be rather racial than political. Apart from such bloody and lamentable conflicts—the massacred Jews, as usual, being alleged to have "begun it"—the latest accounts imply that the people are calming down and preparing to make serious trial of their new institutions. M. Witte's task is a mighty one; his work at Portsmouth was child's play, by comparison. As he made an especial appeal for American sympathy, it cheered him, as he showed by his response, to receive the cabled greetings sent him in the name of New York University. Such assurances that educated Americans are watching with intense interest the great experiment of free government in Russia, might well be given M. Witte by other academic bodies.

That the Powers would send a fleet to overawe the Sultan if he persisted in his refusal to turn over the financial control of Macedonia to their agents, has long been evident. They have been waiting patiently for the Porte to surrender before the sailing of cruisers. Of course, surrender will come afterwards. Austria showed a few years ago how readily the Sultan perceives the force of argument in big guns. Yet all through October the Sultan declined positively to allow the financial agents designated by the European Concert to proceed to Macedonia. They actually reached Salonika, but there they stuck. In reply to energetic protests, the Porte replied that, while it did not deny the need of financial reforms in Macedonia, it could not allow the work to be turned over to foreigners. This was not an unnatural feeling. The Sultan might well argue that, if once the Powers got hold of the purse-strings, they would proceed to take over the whole Macedonian administration. But the Powers supposed that they had Turkey's assent to that step, and are, at any rate, determined to take it. Before a show of force, the Porte will yield. It desires to be on good terms with the Powers and all their representatives; and in this connection, we may say that we are informed that the cabled reports of trouble made by Turkish officials for Mr. Bryce, on his recent journey in Macedonia, were devoid of truth. The opposite, rather, was the case.

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THE LATE CAMPAIGNS.

For an "off-year," the campaigns of 1905 have roused unusual public interest. In four States—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Ohio, and Virginia—Governors were to be elected. In Pennsylvania a State treasurer was to be chosen, and in Maryland a suffrage amendment, which led to a fierce campaign, was to be submitted to the voters. Georgia was the scene of an exciting canvass for the Democratic primary nomination for Governor, and in a number of States legislatures were to be chosen that would have the election to a United States Senatorship. Among these is New Jersey, where a successor to Senator Dryden must be considered, and Tennessee, where Senator Carmack and ex-Gov. Taylor have been fighting for control of the Legislature. Various municipal campaigns also developed into contests of country-wide importance, like the three-cornered Mayoralty fight in this city, Jerome's independent appeal, the City Party revolt in Philadelphia, the Johnson-Boyd contest in Cleveland, and the anti-Schmitz campaign in San Francisco.

In a measure, the contests in Massachusetts, in Rhode Island, in Ohio, and in Georgia seemed likely to turn upon the success or failure of a candidate's attack on corporation influence. Clark Howell emphasized, in his appeal to the Democrats of Georgia for support at the primaries, the charge that his opponent, Hoke Smith, had been a railroad attorney, and was presumably under the control of Morgan and the Southern Railway. Ex-Governor Garvin of Rhode Island based his claim for preference over Governor Utter this year, as in previous years, upon his desire to revise the little State's antiquated Constitution—a Constitution that has facilitated the ownership of the corporation of Rhode Island by the street-railway interests, the Aldriches, and the Braytons. The Democrats of Ohio found a number of vulnerable spots in the Herrick candidacy, among them the Governor's close connection with large corporation enterprises. The Republicans, to be sure, retorted that John M. Pattison, the Democratic candidate, is the president of an insurance company. On both sides in Massachusetts taunts as to corporation control were uttered—their targets being Lodge rather than Guild on the Republican side, and Henry M. Whitney, Democratic candidate for Lieutenant-Governor, on the other.

The fact that no national issues were before the people led to a thorough and wholesome discussion of local party organizations. State bosses like Gorman of Maryland, Lodge, and Cox of Ohio became distinct issues. In his struggle to force the Poe disfranchising amendment upon Maryland, Senator Gorman laid himself open to attack both from opponents in his own party, like Senator Rayner, and such aggressive Republican leaders as were headed by Secretary Bonaparte. It was shown that the suffrage amendment was merely a device for fastening on the State indefinitely an organization that had done Gorman's will, and which he would bequeath to his followers. The shadow of George B. Cox of Cincinnati has been over the Ohio Republican campaign. It was charged against Gov. Herrick that he had been under the influence of this ambitious gutter-product, and that the "boss of the worst-governed city in the country" would extend his influence to Columbus if Herrick were elected.

In Pennsylvania, too, where the only State office of any consequence to be filled was that of Treasurer, the issue clearly defined itself—Should the old Quay machine, already loose-jointed under the management of Senator Penrose, control the State Treasury as it has owned the Governor and the city of Philadelphia, or should a beginning be made in independent government? Here city and State campaigns oddly merged. A sheriff, a coroner, and two city commissioners were to be elected in Philadelphia—not a contest to excite general interest throughout the country in ordinary years; but the hint had gone out that this election was to be the first trial of strength of the champions who, under Mayor Weaver, have set out to destroy the Durham organization that has lined up behind a national party banner. The attempt to inject national politics into local campaigns failed altogether in Philadelphia. It succeeded only partially in Ohio, and in Massachusetts Senator Lodge's plea for Republican support for Guild and Draper, on the ground that opposition to them meant opposition to Roosevelt and his policies, met with no enthusiastic response. Gorman's argument that the Poe amendment was necessary to insure white supremacy, and that white supremacy meant the continuance of Democratic rule, the continuance of an effective Opposition, failed to awaken the old-time spirit.

Everett Colby's successful primary fight against Major Lentz in New Jersey has attracted the country's notice as professedly the first skirmish in the battle to redeem the State Legislatures from the corporations that have named and owned United States Senators. The extension of the primary to the selection of party candidates for the Senate in States like Virginia, Illinois, and Tennessee further emphasized this desire to put back into the peoples' hands the power wrested from them by the consolidation of the machine system. From this brief review it appears that though the campaigns of this year were limited in number, they served admirably to point the growth of independence in local affairs.

THE WORK OF STATE RAILROAD COMMISSIONS.

In the prolonged agitation over the question of railroad rate-making by Federal authority, singularly little has been said regarding the experience of those States whose railroad commissions have long enjoyed substantially the same powers which Congress is now asked to confer upon the Interstate Commerce Commission. Some of them have a much longer history than that body, and most of them were granted their comprehensive powers in response to popular movements—the Granger agitation, for instance—similar in character to that of which the so-called Interstate Commerce Convention is now the head. And it may be remarked in passing that, while the demonstrations of last year were not sufficient to secure the passage of the Esch-Townsend bill at Washington, they did result in the establishment of three new State rate commissions—in Indiana, Washington, and Wisconsin—and the passage of a railroad commission bill in Montana as well, though this was vetoed by the Governor.

Since legislators have avowedly declared their purpose of doing within the boundaries of their own State what they would like to see done over the whole country, the history of the rate-making agencies so created ought to develop some of the principles applicable to the national railroad problem. The State commission's jurisdiction extends, of course, in any case, only to shipments which both originate and end within its territory, but what proportion this bears to the entire burden of traffic, neither the railroads nor the commissioners know. They could not know without collecting every bill of lading from every station for a year. This was illustrated in the Wisconsin legislative hearings last year, where the business within the State was variously estimated at from 2 to 16 per cent. of the total.

From a review of the reports of the so-called "strong" State commissions—"regulative" as distinguished from "supervisory"—two facts stand out strikingly. The number of complaints made to them of unjust or discriminating rates is astonishingly small, and an overwhelming proportion of these are settled out of court without even a formal order. The State Commission of real life, in other words, is neither the tireless and conscientious guardian of the people's rights, ever alert, as the advocates of Government rate-making picture it, to hunt out and destroy oppression, nor the crazy group of aggrieved theorists running amuck in the delicately balanced rate-structure, as the other side has described.

This may be illustrated by citing a few figures from various State reports for the year 1904. Of 5 complaints to the Illinois Commission, none related

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to rates, nor did any of the 58 made to the North Dakota Commission. Of 95 in South Dakota, 2 were on rates; of 135 in Minnesota, 7; of 241 in Kansas, 14; and of 335 in North Carolina, 26. Everywhere grievances regarding the running of trains, the erection of new stations, the building of side tracks, the failure of companies to supply cars, and similar operating matters greatly outnumber the rate cases. According to Frank Haigh Dixon's table, given in his 'State Railroad Control,' the Iowa Commission, between 1888, when it was granted the rate-making power, and 1894, received 92 complaints of station facilities and service to 37 on rates—a smaller average per year, by the way, than when the Commission was only advisory. But, eliminating this greater bulk of other business, we may summarize the year's work of some of the more important "strong" commissions as regards rate adjustments alone, in a few lines each:

"Alabama—Hearings on application for general reduction of rates. Denied. Made 'material reduction' in rates on grain, hay, potatoes, syrup, etc. Ordered 10 per cent. deducted from sums of local rates.

"Georgia—Ordered general revision of 'standard tariff.' Enjoined by railroad companies. Commission withdrew its orders on promise of the railroads to reduce interstate rates.

"Illinois—No action on rates reported.

"Iowa—Hearings on twenty modifications of rates requested. Embodied sixteen in amendment to classification. Also settled many cases by correspondence.

"Kansas—Complaints on rates 14, relief granted by Commission 3, relief denied by Commission 3, adjusted 7, withdrawn 1.

"Missouri—Promulgated maximum distance freight schedule, abolished toll on grain inspected, reduced switching charges. All complaints but one adjusted.

"North Carolina—Applications of railroads granted 4, denied 1; of shippers, denied or dismissed 5, granted 3, adjusted 5, no jurisdiction 5.

"North Dakota—No action on rates reported.

"South Dakota—Two rate complaints, both adjusted.

"Texas—'Many reductions'; held 97 hearings, issued 270 circulars, 375 'special authorities.' Among reductions, icing charges on cabbages, excess baggage charges, rates on stone, sand, pig iron, wire, rough logs, and rice."

Lack of uniformity in arrangement makes detailed comparison impossible, but is is manifest that, whatever the moral effect of the drastic rate-making powers of these commissions may be, they have very seldom exercised them. Not only are the vast majority of complaints adjusted without a formal order, but, in all States dealt with above, there was only one instance of a railroad company contesting an order in the courts, and that was to avert a general reduction. The so-called "strong" commissions, where they have been active at all, have, in fact, worked on substantially the same lines as a purely advisory Commission might. So their most useful function has been, not the summary correction of abuses by their own authority, but the bringing together of railroad and shipper in an amicable relation.

GOVERNMENT EXPERTS.

Our readers will recall that last May the Bureau of Manufactures at Washington sent out Mr. Lincoln Hutchinson as a special agent to report upon the condition of our trade with South America. It will be remembered, also, that Mr. Hutchinson speedily discovered and reported to the Washington authorities that there was no reason for thinking that American trade with Brazil would be aided by the establishment of additional steamship lines—of course, by means of a subsidy. It appeared, indeed, that there was no lack of steamship facilities, and that the countries which have worked the hardest to establish connections with Brazilian ports have not improved their trade by such efforts. In fact, Mr. Hutchinson had the presumption to suggest that what was needed was not more steamships, but the improvement of postal facilities, which are now very slow and uncertain on account of the unbusinesslike methods of the New York Post-Office.

When his report appeared, we suspected that his conclusions would cause a commotion among the subsidy-hunters at Washington, who seem to have the ears of the officials in the departments. That something had gone wrong with the machinery for disseminating official misinformation seemed to be recognized uneasily by the editor of the *Daily Consular Reports*, who took occasion to insert an editorial paragraph to the effect that Mr. Hutchinson's opinion "does not agree with a very common belief in this country." We have waited with interest to see what action would be taken to counteract the dangerous heresy that trade with any country can ever increase and multiply unless the Government gives somebody a subsidy. How such a pernicious doctrine ever found its way into an official publication of the United States Government, is hard to conjecture.

A recent number of the *Consular Reports* supplies the needed refutation of Mr. Hutchinson's dangerous teachings, and offers the *amende honorable* to the subsidy-seekers for the undeserved affront. The editor of the *Reports* has found a newspaper correspondent who has recently been travelling in South America, and who has become convinced that the only hope of extending our trade with Brazil and other countries is to establish direct steamship connection with their ports. That there is no lack of transportation facilities at present counts for nothing with this patriotic investigator: trade would increase by leaps and bounds "if fine steamers were seen in the Brazilian ports flying the Stars and Stripes." What shall go into the ships is, of course, a matter of secondary importance, provided only that a subsidy form a part of the cargoes; the main thing is to familiarize the people of South America with the sight of the flag. Let the subsidy-grabbers take new courage. Compared with the patriotic sentiments of this "recent traveller," the opinions of Special Agent Hutchinson seem impotent and sordid indeed.

All this suggests certain serious reflections concerning the position and functions of the "expert" who undertakes to investigate economic problems for the United States Government. Like Mr. Hutchinson, he usually comes from some university where, presumably, he has been trained to observe facts, record patiently the results of his observation, and reason soberly upon the evidence he has gathered. But little does your expert realize how poorly his university training has fitted him for the practical, rough-and-tumble work of the official investigator. The first thing that he must learn is, that, to the politician, scientific truth means not conformity with hard and sober fact, but availability for the purpose in view at any particular time. In all things the expert must consider the purpose and policy of the party which happens to be in power, and must guide his researches accordingly. This is the first and greatest commandment for the expert; and the second, third, and all the others are like unto it.

To give these general remarks a practical application, and to furnish a model for Mr. Hutchinson and other inexperienced experts, we may point with pride to the work of the late Industrial Commission. There was a body of experienced investigators who understood precisely what they were appointed for! The country was agitated in 1898 over the growth of Trusts and the manner in which they abused the privileges accorded them by the tariff. There even seemed to be danger that something might be done to remedy the evils of which the people complained, and so Congress decided to have the matter investigated. The members of the Commission, realizing the delicacy of the situation, deliberated until the country had had time to cool off, and then brought in a nineteen-volume report which nobody would, or could, read except under compulsion. The Commission concluded that Trusts were dangerous affairs which had proved a great boon to the American people, and that the tariff was responsible for none of their abuses and most of their benefits. Whenever any of the more untutored experts employed by the Commission were in danger of unearthing some significant and important fact, they were promptly called off and directed into "safer" avenues of investigation; while if their final conclusions ever gave displeasure, the disagreeable passages were conveniently lost somewhere on the way to the Government Printing-Office. That was an investigation worth the having; it endangered no "business interests," and never threatened to cut off contribu-

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tions to the Republican National Committee. Inexperienced investigators, fresh from the university, may learn much from the nineteen portly volumes in which the work of the Commission is entombed. Indeed, if Mr. Hutchinson had merely read the first volume, he would not have committed such a *faux pas* as to run foul of the subsidy-grabbers during the second month of his labors. For whose benefit does he suppose that the commercial policy of the United States is now directed?

THE "PATENT MEDICINE" CRUSADE

In order to reduce the "patent" proprietary medicine business to its legitimate field, it is necessary to accomplish only two things: First, the public must be made to understand what these "remedies" are in themselves, and, second, legislators and well-meaning citizens generally must be brought to realize that the "demonstrations of popular sentiment" in favor of these nostrums are purely factitious, being inspired solely by the manufacturerers themselves and those who profit by the sales. The past year—the most harassing, perhaps, that the proprietors of the celebrated cure-alls have ever passed through—has seen so much accomplished by educational work along both of these lines that one might almost declare the whole face of the question to be changed.

The initial difficulty in dealing with this subject is, of course, that the vast majority of so-called "patent medicines" are not patented. If they were, their formulæ would be matters of public record. As it is, those engaged in the fight may easily discredit their cause by such mistakes as that of the editor who some months since described one popular mixture on the basis of an old analysis, and was compelled to retract by the demonstration that the composition as now on sale was something quite different. Concealment of the facts regarding a medicine, combined with the widest publicity for its claims, has been the requisite for success in this business. The facts have long been accessible to any one with but little trouble. Yet when some of the ten-cent monthlies and weeklies, circulating largely among what may be called without disrespect the patent-medicine-taking classes, began to publish them, more genuine consternation and horror was never aroused. Loyal members of temperance societies learned for the first time that the healing fluids they had been taking with such confidence and in such quantities contained percentages of alcohol carrying from twice that of lager beer to that contained in the most fiery whiskey, brandy, or gin. Many, if not most, of the "tonics" and "bitters" advertised are, what the secretary of the Massachusetts Board of Health called "Peruna"—"cheap cocktails." Without the agitation of just such publications as the *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Leslie's Monthly* and *Collier's Weekly*, it would have taken a very much longer time to hammer home this fundamental fact.

Official agencies have been more than usually active, too, in the past year. The Commissioner of Internal Revenue's recent ruling, requiring the payment of a retail liquor dealer's tax for the sale of the highly alcoholic preparations, is important, as also the action of the Post-Office Department in withholding the use of the mails from actually fraudulent medicine concerns. Finally, one State has at last enacted the law requiring the publication of formulæ on all packages or bottles of proprietary remedies. This law, which ought to be in force throughout the country, has thus far been fought successfully by the "patent-medicine" interests everywhere except in North Dakota, which State is thereby entitled to head a roll of honor.

As to the means by which an apparent expression of public sentiment is secured adverse to these salutary statutes, the article on "The Patent Medicine Conspiracy," in the current issue of *Collier's*, presents a greater amount of detailed information than has ever before been brought together. It has long been known by those who have looked into the subject that the crude method of buying Legislatures to head off unfriendly legislation has been succeeded by a more effective system of controlling the press through advertising. The credit for the invention is freely accorded to Mr. F. J. Cheney of Toledo, proprietor of Hall's Catarrh Cure (alcohol 14¾ per cent.), who explained it a few years ago at a session of the Proprietary Association at Delmonico's. The writer of the article referred to shows by facsimiles of the advertising contracts of various leading companies that his hint has been taken. This is one clause found in substance in the advertising contracts of all the leading companies:

> "It is mutually agreed that this contract is void if any law is enacted by your State restricting or prohibiting the manufacture or sale of proprietary medicines."

And the second bears a strong family resemblance to it:

> "It is agreed that the Munyon's H. H. Remedy Co. may cancel this contract pro rata in case advertisements are published in this paper in which their products are offered with a view to substitution or other harmful motive; also, in case any matter otherwise detrimental to the Munyon's H. H. Remedy Co.'s interests is permitted to appear in the reading columns or elsewhere in this paper."

These are brief clauses, but they are potent. Because of them, a most important debate on the "labelling bill" in the Massachusetts Legislature last spring went unreported by every paper in the State except the Springfield *Republican*. Because of them, it was found impossible to procure the publication of one of Mr. Bok's articles, even at advertising rates, in the press of the country generally. Because of them, every dollar of advertising has been withdrawn from North Dakota. Because of them, editors have brought their personal influence to bear on legislators—*Collier's* prints one threatening letter to a Wisconsin Senator—and have written uncounted columns of "editorials" praising the wares of the nostrum makers. Details are given *ad nauseam*. We have seen, in an advertising journal not long ago, a report of the action of an Ohio newspaper publishers' association, whose members voted that if a hostile bill passed the Legislature, their papers would adopt the policy of printing the attending physician's name as a part of every death-notice.

We have said above that general enlightenment on two points would result in putting the proprietary medicine business in its proper place. If any one prefers somebody's Nerve Cure to any other tipple, that is his own affair. The essential point is that no one shall be wheedled into buying it while ignorant of its real nature. Similarly, an editor, like anybody else, has a perfect right, under the Constitution, to shout himself hoarse in the praise of a particular cough syrup. But, "when next a member of a State Legislature arises and states, as I have so often heard, 'Gentlemen, this label bill seems right to me, but I cannot support it; the united press of my district is opposed to it'—when that happens, let every one understand the wires that have moved 'the united press of my district.'"

THE YOUNG MAN AND THE WORLD.

Senator Albert J. Beveridge's book, 'The Young Man and the World,' renews one's faith in human nature. Here is a member of the United States Senate advising beginners in the great business of life. The uninitiated would expect the author to look at the careers of his distinguished colleagues and then utter the exhortation, "Go thou and do likewise." The Senate is indubitably made up of men who have achieved what is commonly regarded as success. Consider but a few of the more prominent names: Morgan G. Bulkeley of Connecticut, Joseph R. Burton of Kansas, Arthur Pue Gorman of Maryland, Henry Cabot Lodge of Massachusetts, William A. Clark of Montana, John F. Dryden of New Jersey, Thomas Collier Platt and Chauncey Mitchell Depew of New York, John H. Mitchell of Oregon, Boies Penrose of Pennsylvania, Nelson W. Aldrich of Rhode Island. From the conduct of these men an ingenious philosopher might deduce a compact and undeniably practical code of morals. The first and great commandment would be to get on; and the second would be like unto

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it, to sacrifice everything to that end. If you want money, serve the interests of the corporations which can pay you handsomely. If you have money, debauch the electorate of your State. If you come of good family, comport yourself like a man bred in the gutter. If you have education, devote your accomplishments to demagoguery. Exert every effort to make politics corrupt and disreputable.

But this kind of cynicism is not for Mr. Beveridge. His advice might fitly fall from the lips of any preacher or Sunday-school superintendent in this virtuous land; or it might, without marring the context, be incorporated in the volumes of Dr. Samuel Smiles himself. When there is so much that is sound, it seems almost invidious to make selections. For the benefit of our more depraved readers, however, we venture to summarize briefly the main points of Senator Beveridge's doctrine. We hope that our imperfect statement will serve to whet curiosity and increase the sale of the book, especially among professional politicians of all parties:

"Be honest with the world, and the world will be honest with you." This is the opening sentence, the keynote, so to speak, of the whole twelve chapters. "I do not mean," says the author, "that lowest form of honesty which bids you keep your hands clean of another's goods or money. I do not mean that you shall not be a 'grafter.' . . . Of course, you will be honest in a money sense." From Mitchell, Burton, Penrose, and Depew comes a hearty chorus of assent. But we listen not to them, but to the sage of Indiana: "You must be intellectually honest. Do not pretend to be what you are not. . . . For example, never try to look wise. Many a front of gravity and weight conceals an intellectual desolation." This is all very true, but, we submit, the honorable gentleman has transgressed the rules of Senatorial courtesy. Can Lodge read these words and yet refrain from rising to a point of personal privilege when the Senate convenes, and chastising the guilty author? What is more, Senator Beveridge is attacking a former member of the Indiana delegation, Charles Warren Fairbanks, now Vice-President of the United States. The phrase "intellectual desolation" is a palpable hit. And if Mr. Fairbanks is not to try to look wise, what in Heaven's name is there left for him to do?

We should like to dwell on the details of Senator Beveridge's counsel about the choice of a profession. In brief, he would have a youth pick out the thing he can do best and then set for himself "the ideal of perfection" in his calling. "Dream of yourself as the best civil engineer of your time, or the soundest banker, or ablest merchant." This suggestion, some hypercritical persons may say, is not novel—is even older than Solomon. It is. But Senator Beveridge is not so old as Solomon; his private life is six or seven hundred times more exemplary; and his words are as true as 'Proverbs.' What more can any one ask of a man of forty-three? "He who worries, not only poisons the very fountains of his own strength, but arouses in the world's attitude toward him a sort of sneering pity." And, we may add, if an author worries because Solomon or any other dead and forgotten dealer in maxims may have said the same thing before, that author will never write such a stimulating book as 'The Young Man and the World.'

The pages which discuss reading should be reprinted entire, but space forbids. The *Congressional Record* is not, we learn with surprise and gratification, Senator Beveridge's conception of a *vade-mecum*. Nor does he offer us a selected list from the voluminous issues of the Patent Office, the Bureau of Navigation, or the Agricultural Department. These ponderous tomes, good though they be in their way, are not, in the opinion of the Senator from Indiana, food for the soul. He vastly prefers the Bible, Shakspere, Burns, Emerson, Plutarch, and Omar Khayyám. We trust that the Senator is favoring his constituents with copies of these classics rather than with Government reports, though on [illegible] he is not explicit. Perhaps [illegible] pardon a suggestion from personal experience. When we first began to take an interest in books, we found that the Government publications were as good as the Bible or Shakspere for pressing autumn leaves. For making scrap-books they were far superior. An agricultural report, with two out of every three sheets neatly cut out, was a scrap-book to be proud of. With the Bible and Shakspere we were not, for some mysterious reason, allowed to take such liberties. The binding of Mr. Beveridge's 'The Young Man and the World' is so strong that the book will not suffer in the least from such cutting. In some ways the process would be beneficial; for—to quote the Senator's own dictum—"after a while one wearies of the endless repetition, the 'damnable iteration,' contained in the great mass of books."

THOUGHTS ON THE NELSON CENTENARY.

LONDON, October 28, 1905.

The celebration in England and throughout the British Empire of Nelson's centenary arouses more than one reflection in the mind of any one who cares to trace the course of public opinion.

First, the emotion caused by the memory of England's greatest seaman and of his exploits marks a singular turn in the current of popular sentiment. It is the sign of the influence exerted by Imperialism—a word which it is wisest to use in a purely neutral sense as meaning enthusiasm in favor of the maintenance of the British Empire. Now the one thing which no candid observer can doubt is, that this sentiment is with Englishmen the fashion of the time. There is no politician of any weight, unless it be Mr. John Morley, who would care to disclaim all sympathy with the sense of Imperial greatness. But Imperialism, though no doubt a fashion, and, as some critics think, one which will pass away, most certainly is a fasnion which represents genuine feeling. It is like the passion for nationality which, during a large portion of the nineteenth century, gave to European politics their whole color; an emotion not likely to lose its force until it has for bad or for good produced marked results. Every one who tries to understand the public life of modern England must note the influence of Imperialism, and ought to admit that it represents ideas and aspirations which, during the last thirty or forty years, have, year by year, attained a stronger hold on the English people.

Secondly, English Imperialism is likely to stimulate national defects no less than national virtues. It assuredly bears, if looked at from its worst side, a resemblance to feelings known twenty years ago as Jingoism. To dwell constantly on the greatness of British power; to recall of set purpose the recollection of triumphs in warfare; to imagine, without it may be anything like adequate ground for the belief, that England can at any given moment produce a Nelson, and that a second Nelson, if he existed, could defeat the navy of every modern State with the same completeness with which our national hero crushed the navy of France, may well produce a state of mind as likely to be the parent of calamity as of triumph. Memories of Frederick the Great did not save Prussian armies from the overwhelming disaster of Jena. The Napoleonic tradition led the soldiers of France not to Berlin, but to Sedan, and the recollection of the ease with which French armies had entered the capitals of modern Europe was one cause of the siege and fall of Paris. We can all of us, with the victories of Japan before our eyes, point the moral to be drawn from the overconfidence, the presumption and the aggressive arrogance of Russia. What man of sense can fail to see that a bad form of Imperialism may prove as calamitous to England as a spirit of the same kind, stimulated by traditional triumphs, has been to foreign countries? Nor is it a blessing to any country that, at a time when social and domestic problems of infinite perplexity can be solved only by the exercise of consummate wisdom and of exceptional self-restraint, public attention should be directed towards questions of foreign policy, and be occupied with thoughts of diplomatic successes. It is right to speak plainly of the evils either inherent in or connected with Imperial sentiment in order that one may also think clearly and speak plainly about a condition of popular feeling which has its good as well as its bad side. The worship of Nelson, and the sentiment which it represents, have the merit that they are grounded on real and important facts. They are the acknowledgment of the immense debt due from every Englishman to the genius and patriotism of Nelson—a debt which in one

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respect met with a somewhat inadequate return. "Trafalgar," Mahan is said to have written, "saved England"; this is a consideration which no Englishman should ever forget.

Imperialism, again, expresses the conviction that there is an Imperial as well as a national unity which deserves to be fostered and cherished; Imperialism, looked at from its best side, is nothing else than an extension of patriotism. It is assuredly well that, in an age when men of all classes are tempted to make enjoyment or even physical comfort the end of life, we should recall events which record the readiness of Englishmen to defend their country at the price not only of death, but of injuries or suffering worse than death. Such patriotic pride is no denial that men of other States and of other races have shown, and one trusts always will show, heroism which equals the best that England can produce. Imperialism, lastly, represents the settled belief that the great free States of the world must, in the presence of vast military empires, remain strong if they are to remain free, and that the strength of the British Empire requires that the spirit of Imperial unity should be strengthened, and that the world would gain greatly could the whole English people, under whatever form of government they lived, come to feel themselves to be morally citizens of one great commonwealth.

Thirdly, is it possible that this ideal can be at present realized even as regards that portion of the English people which is subject to the rule of Edward VII.? This is the question which every Englishman asks himself. The omens are in many respects favorable. The sense of unity has increased to a degree hardly possible for any one to realize except an Englishman who for forty or fifty years has, in England, watched the ebb and flow of popular feeling. Yet even such a man stands at some disadvantage. He knows England, he may not know, intimately at least, a single English colony; but unless rumor turns out, as it too often does, to be a liar, it is impossible not to believe that, throughout the dominions of the English Crown, the desire for union has, among English-speaking people at any rate, greatly increased. "Nelson Day" is the outward and visible sign of a change of spirit, and the change is the more important because it is due to obvious and natural causes. The discoveries of science have brought Englishmen throughout the world nearer to one another. When men become neighbors, they tend (though the tendency is often a very slight one) to become neighborly. The growth of great military states, the growing belief in the benefits to be derived from State action, all the most obvious phenomena of the day, point at first sight in the same direction: they all suggest the expediency of the expansion of England.

But the very circumstances which seem to favor the growth of a new and greater unity must suggest to any man of a reflective turn of mind that the attempt to achieve the ideals of what has been termed sane Imperialism, is exposed to at least two dangers which may lead to its failure. The first of these perils is the risk that English statesmen and Englishmen generally may forget the homely but important proverb, "More haste, less speed." To the present writer it is clear that the most dangerous enemies of sane Imperialism are the enthusiasts who try to force on a formal union between England and her colonies, instead of stimulating the spirit of unity and letting forms slowly—it may be very slowly—develop themselves in accordance with the dictates of a new state of feeling. At the present moment an Imperial Constitution, were it framed with the utmost skill, might well break up such Imperial unity as already exists. The second of these perils is the inconsistency, possibly the fundamental and irreconcilable inconsistency, between two popular ideals having something in common, yet likely to come into conflict. These ideals may be popularly summed up under the names Socialism and Imperialism. They have so much in common that they are based on a strong faith in the benefits to be expected from State action as contrasted with the unrestrained activity of individuals, but they each in reality aim at different ends. The object of Socialism is, to benefit the whole State by extending to every man equal advantages, or at lowest the opportunity of obtaining equal advantages. Education Acts which shall, as far as possible, give even to the poor as good an education as may be possessed by a member of the middle classes; the provision at the public expense of old-age pensions for deserving or perhaps even for undeserving poverty; the building, at the expense of the rate-payer, of houses and libraries better than any man not endowed with large means could obtain for himself—all aim at this equalization of advantages, and all increase the weight of taxation. Imperialism, on the other hand, attempts to increase, throughout the whole Empire and for the benefit of the whole Empire, Imperial power; but this increase of power must inevitably be at the expense of the taxpayer. The cost of Imperialism may more than repay itself. So be it. But that a policy of Imperial greatness involves the increase of Imperial burdens cannot in reality be disputed. One of the best-known and certainly one of the most disinterested among the advocates of old-age pensions estimates the cost to England (unless my memory deceives me) at £17,000,000 per annum. Suppose that the choice is placed before the English elector of spending this sum on the provision of old-age pensions or on the defence of the Empire. Can any one say for certain what would be the wish of that "man-in-the-street" who is supposed to govern the policy of England? What is really the same inquiry may take different forms in different parts of the Crown's dominions. What will be the answer of Australians to the question whether they will modify their protective tariffs in order to produce something like free trade throughout the length and breadth of the British Empire? My object is to raise, not to answer, this inquiry.

The possible opposition between Socialism and Imperialism suggests one further thought. Is it certain that Socialistic or anti-Socialistic sympathies may not give a death-blow to national or Imperial protriotism? Socialism is in its way a religion; nor is it at all certain that opposition to Socialism may not become a creed. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, community of religious belief became a stronger tie than community of race or country. Is it not within the bounds of possibility that Socialists, at any rate of different countries, may come to feel that their Socialism, which is a sort of secular religion, is a far closer bond than the tie of nationality or of membership in a given empire? A new cosmopolitanism may then be fatal to the growth of Imperialism.

AN OBSERVER.

THE BATTLE OF SOCIALISM.

SYDNEY, October 2, 1905.

A few weeks ago it seemed as if, for the first time in history, the inhabitants of a whole continent would be called upon to decide by a collective vote at the polling-booths whether a system of State Socialism should be brought into operation in countries whose cities, at least, may claim to belong to the vanguard of civilization. By resorting to the desperate expedient of concluding an alliance between the mass of the free traders and the body of the protectionists, the more moderate members of the Commonwealth Parliament last year succeeded in ousting the Labor Ministry that had held office for only a few months. What policy could the piebald Ministry that emerged from such a combination devise in the hope of uniting its motley band of supporters? It was agreed that the "fiscal question" should be indefinitely postponed, and indeed, with three avowed protectionists in the Cabinet, no other course was practicable. The Prime Minister (that is his official title, adopted to distinguish him from the premiers of the States) deliberately raised the broad issue of Socialism. He traversed several of the States, passing from Victoria to Tasmania, and from New South Wales to Queensland, delivering impassioned addresses denunciatory of Socialism, and calling on the electors to prepare to determine whether Australia should abide by the old English ways or adopt the methods of Continental Socialism. Leading politicians on the same side echoed the call. The Opposition was strangely divided. The hacks of protection had no difficulty in showing that Australia had long been in good part Socialist and was already committed to the system in principle. The protectionist leader, on the other hand, declared that he was at the opposite pole to all Socialist doctrines. The Labor leader did not hesitate to take up the challenge, and avowed himself a thoroughgoing Socialist; reviving the days of Maurice and Kingsley, he called himself a Christian Socialist. The churches took part in the scrimmage. The Anglican bishop of Tasmania, apparently ambitious of emulating Bishop Ketteler in Bavaria, frankly avowed his Socialist sympathies. Catholics would appear, in spite of themselves, to be committed against Socialism by the Pope's encyclical, but his representatives in Australia took another view of the matter. The liberal-minded head of the Church, Cardinal Moran, who was public-spirited enough to stand for election to the convention that drafted the Federal Constitution, drew a sharp distinction between the revolutionary Socialism denounced by the Pope and the "coöperative commonwealth" that is the ideal of the Australian Labor leaders, which he seemed to favor. Another tolerant and cultured prelate, the Catholic archbishop of Melbourne,

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adhered to the distinction, but both have been unceremoniously thrown over by the bulk of Catholic laymen, who have gained in Australia an independence of mind such as they would never have acquired in priest-ridden Ireland. The newspapers reflected the agitation of the community without reflecting its differences; especially in New South Wales they are almost unanimously anti-Socialist. Yet they impartially teemed with articles and letters on both sides. The halls rang with speeches. Politics were lifted to a higher level. Men who in England had lived through the great days of Gladstone and Disraeli, Bright and Lowe, and who deplored the pettiness of Australian public life, were gratified to find the greatest questions brought within the field of discussion and to the verge of action. The mediocre personalities of political leaders were aggrandized by the cause they advocated or opposed.

On the eve of the assembling of the Commonwealth Parliament in June last, the protectionist leader formally dissolved the alliance between the protectionists and the free traders. He pretended that the appointment (to which he had been a party) of a commission to adjust inequalities in the tariff had reopened the question of free trade and protection, which had been temporarily closed. He did not yet declare against the coalition Ministry, of whose formation he had approved. The American creators of an irrigation settlement in a parched district of Victoria had, years before, found him (they profanely said) as firm as "the rock of ages." The rock was now turned to sand. Pliantly yielding to the pressure of the Labor leader, he moved a vote of want of confidence in the Ministry. The Labor party and the protectionists once more coalescing for the occasion, the motion was carried by a large majority. The event thus consummated by the treachery of the protectionist chief "sent a thrill of amazement and indignation throughout Australia." So it was expressed by an ex-Premier of Victoria and one of the most respected of Australian statesmen. The immediate appeal to the constituencies was averted. The Governor-General refused to grant the dissolution which the free-trade Prime Minister solicited.

The conspirators soon reaped the fruits of their mingled astuteness and perfidy. The protectionists, composing the smallest of the three Parliamentary sections, went into office on the promise of "a generous support" from the Labor party. The terms on which the support was to be given were immediately made plain. The very first measure introduced by the Ministry was one for the granting of a large sum as bonuses to establishments engaged or about to embark in the iron trade. So far, there was nothing inconsistent with the stereotyped protectionist policy. But the proposal was only a mask, or at best a preliminary. The bill further provided that, after an unstated number of months, the owners of any particular iron works might be called upon to surrender to the Government of the Commonwealth their plant, buildings, and the ground they occupied. This part of the bill was obviously dictated by the Labor leader. In the Commonwealth, as in New South Wales, one of the foremost planks of the Labor platform is the acquisition of all natural monopolies, and especially of the iron industry. The Labor section only used its commanding position to exact, as the price of its support, that steps should be taken towards that end. But it is strange that such a measure should be introduced by a Minister who, a few weeks earlier, had declared himself to be "at the opposite pole" to Socialist doctrines. It is still stranger that the Minister who thus voided his principles, and so easily digested those of the party which had turned him out of office fifteen months before, should be a man of high character, and one of the few public men in secularly minded Australia who are closely connected with a religious denomination.

How irresistible is the movement that is sweeping both States and Commonwealth in the direction of State Socialism might be shown by the recital of some recent political events. There has never been in Australia a cleaner ministry than that which now governs Victoria. It was sent into office with a mission of retrenchment and reform. It swept the Augean stables of the post-office, the State railways, and the public service generally. An inflexible minister, with the inappropriate name of Bent, grappled with and overthrew a strike of the railway employees that, for a week or more, paralyzed the industry and the entire life of the State. And now this very minister, whose career has been signalized by so many honorable services, has himself embarked on State Socialism. Dissatisfied with the cost of brick-making by private industry, he has induced an anti-Socialist Legislature to sanction the establishment of State brick works. It is no less characteristic that, while these lines are being written, he has abandoned the unwise proposal. The carrying of the bill sufficed to make the companies reduce their terms.

The Ministry formed last year in New South Wales is another product of the reaction against Socialism, and it furnishes another example of the strength of the Socialist movement. The very first measure it introduced was one for the establishment of a State bank. A number of the Premier's supporters rebelliously broke away from him, but he carried the bill through the first chamber. Then the Legislative Council, consisting of unpaid nominees, extinguished it for the time. That was last year; this year the Government is saner. Sixty locomotives were wanted for the State railways; should they be built abroad or in Australia? The Ministry at first decided that they should be built in Philadelphia or in England. Conscious that the State was unprosperous, it yielded to pressure, and resolved to have them locally built. The decision raised a new issue. The leader of the Labor party proposed that they should be built at the State railway workshops, and spoke for three hours in support of the motion. The Premier moved, on the other hand, that they should be built by private contract, and spoke for three and a half hours in support of that proposal. After an animated discussion, the Premier's motion was carried by a large majority, and State Socialism experienced another defeat.

From the Labor Ministry in West Australia, Socialist measures were to be expected, and they have come, but in moderation. Two years ago a prior Ministry had scared the English capitalists who own the chief railway in the State by bringing forward a Railway Traffic bill (fully described in the *Yale Review* for August, 1904, p. 175), requiring the company to afford "reasonable traffic facilities," and otherwise dealing with the railroad in Draconian fashion. The outcry made in London blocked the further prosecution of the measure, and the Labor Ministry that succeeded proposed to make a compulsory purchase of the railway. The step would be in full accordance with colonial precedents. The Socialism of the Labor policy is more clearly shown in another direction. A wave of temperance sentiment is passing over these colonies, and is driving one Government after another to enact optional prohibitory laws. The West Australian Ministry has made a new departure. State hotels are there, as in New Zealand, already in existence, and one of them has just made the substantial profit of £589 on the year's business. It is now proposed to set up such hotels in districts where a local-option poll expresses a desire for a new hotel. The licensing committee should then refuse to issue any new licenses to private applicants. The eventual absorption of the trade by the State is evidently contemplated. The fall of the Ministry in consequence of a split in the Labor party arising from the autocratic character of the Premier has led to the abandonment of the measure and the new Premier (also a Labor member) feels his position too insecure to permit adventures. It is perhaps not singular that a Labor Socialist Minister should aim at autocracy. Marx and Lassalle are both described as having been *autoritaires*.

In New Zealand the Socialist wave is still far from being spent. For thirteen years that enterprising colony has been filling its statute-book with measures almost reconstructing society from base to summit. Its energy is yet unexhausted, and these very months are witnessing new efforts of its Legislature to solve economic problems to which its own changing conditions and the changes of society elsewhere have given birth. The parliamentary session had hardly begun at the end of June (answering to December in northern countries) when the Premier announced another of those schemes in which the imagination of the ex-engine driver and ex-publican has been so fertile. Mr. Seddon introduced it with the melancholy confession that, in spite of all the beneficent industrial legislation of the past ten or twelve years, projected mainly in the interest of the laboring class, the condition of the worker had not been ameliorated. A class of middlemen, who were neither employers nor workmen, had stepped in and reaped the fruit of the efforts that had been made. The very prosperity of the country had penalized the worker and the entire mass of those who lived in other people's houses. The cost of living had risen fully as much as wages had been raised. In that cost, house-rent is a chief element. Workmen cannot procure commodious dwellings at a reasonable rate. The State (and he might have said, with far more truth than the Grand Monarque, that he was the State) would come to the rescue and build cottages for the houseless worker. The scheme is alleged to rest on a sound financial basis (which is

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not always the case with the projects of the New Zealand Government), and it is carefully elaborated. It empowers the Minister of Labor to erect buildings suitable for workers' dwellings at a maximum cost of £300, the buildings to be leased to landless workers for a period of fifty years, with the right of renewal at 5 per cent. per annum on the capital value, in addition to the cost of fire insurance. The lessee has to pay monthly, in advance, and he must reside in the house. There are three modes of acquiring the freehold: First, by payment in cash of the capital value at any time less than twenty-five years, at the rate of 6 per cent., plus fire insurance. Secondly, by the payment of the capital value by monthly sums over a period of thirty-two or forty-one years at the lessee's option, in which case the rental is to be 7 per cent. and insurance. Thirdly, by insurance on the lessee's life in the Government office for an amount equal to the cost of the dwelling. If the worker fails to reside, the dwelling reverts to the Crown. He cannot dispose of the lease or the freehold without the consent of the Land Board. If the husband dies, the widow may continue to occupy the house on the same terms.

The Premier of New Zealand, who cannot usually be accused of pessimism, is alarmed by the probable effects of the opening of the Panama Canal. He expects that his colony will be flooded by American manufactures, and he fears that even his Chinese wall of a protective tariff will not be high enough to keep them out. He raises the cost of the prime necessaries of life to his fellow-citizens by high duties that exclude even Australian wheat; he inflates all its manufactures by heavily taxing English imports, already handicapped by onerous freights; and he loads American products with "preferential duties." All this is not enough. The American Trust has invaded New Zealand. The Harvester Trust and the Tobacco Trust are already affecting colonial industry and commerce. In five years, it is estimated, the Harvester Trust will wipe out the corresponding colonial manufactures. Manufacturers and workers alike cry out for total prohibition; the Canterbury farmers naturally reject the heroic remedy. The righteous soul of the Premier is also vexed by the limitations on the retail trade imposed by the Tobacco Trust. Hence the Government has introduced the Trades Monopolies Prevention bill. A trade monopoly is elaborately described, but it would be sending owls to Athens to repeat the description to American readers. Enough to say that the bill strikes at internal as well as external Trusts. At the instance of the Minister of Labor or the Minister of Industries, the courts may do all things to enforce the prevention and continuance of a trade monopoly, may impose a fine of £1,000 on any person or association, and may issue an injunction for the continuance of acts in furtherance of such a monopoly. Penalties are also provided for unduly preventing or lessening competition or production.

Such is the New Zealand official solution of a problem that some ardent disciples of Spencer in the same colony—individualists *pur sang*, who once out-Heroded Herod in advocating *laissez-faire*—deemed so formidable that they were prepared to accept State Socialism as the only efficacious agency for resisting an evil which first wounds the conscience and then crushes the independence of the industrial organism, as the serpents bit before they strangled Laokoön and his sons. "O ye of little faith!" a latter-day teacher might repeat. They are no very profound philosophers who fail to perceive that, along with the diseases it inevitably begets, society infallibly generates their therapeutics.

J. C.

THROUGH THREE CHINESE PROVINCES

HANKOW, October 1, 1905.

To see China by railway seems an anomaly. Indeed, when that new fact becomes more widely possible, the traditional China will have ceased to be; and only because this experience is as yet a novelty, does it seem worth while to record it. In quitting Japan for Korea and northern China we felt that we were exchanging charm for interest, certainly discomfort, possibly repulsion. But former impressions of southern China in the great heats of spring and late summer had to be corrected almost on landing in the north country. There the people seem so much less sulky, brutish, and vindictive, while many of the plainest sort are cheerful and even jolly to the passing contact. Furthermore, I shall be surprised to learn that other Americans have not recorded their sense of certain marked resemblances between this region and parts of their own land. The dry, light-colored soil, the dust-laden winds, which tint the landscape unmistakably; the character of the herbage and wild growth; the distant expression of the trees, which is graceful and feathery; the light gray or yellow-green hue of all vegetation; the wide horizons, and the level flats of arable country, from which the serrated hills rise abruptly, one might almost say brusquely; the dry, pure, bracing air, and, most of all, the sky (nowhere else have I ever encountered the exact cloud and atmospheric effects with the identical tints of our home skies)—all this gives one an odd feeling of "at homeness," until one glances at man and his handiwork, and then one knows that one is still but a "foreign devil." Where all the fields are differently worked and planted from our own; where even the villages attempt to enclose themselves in walls—if only of mud—of a uniform shape and proportion; where every tiny shanty tries for the privacy of a compound, and at least partially secures it by remaining windowless; where the so-called roads, which are often only paths, have cut themselves down below the fields through the wear (and shiftlessness) of the ages; where almost every field has its burial-ground of smaller or larger mounds, sometimes planted in a square or rectangle of rows of red and green bush-grass; where man often works hatless and always hairless, unless the queue twisted up be counted such a protection; where woman works afield sitting on a stool to ease the strain on her tightly bound feet—there, surely, the foreigner's sense of nationality must needs be very strong and distinct.

To leave Pekin on the Pe-han Railway (so named from the two first syllables of its terminals, Pekin and Hankow) is to carry away a far less striking impression of the great fortress city than by the railway to Tientsin. For the walls and towers seem larger and longer towards the eastern approach, while a stray pagoda or two, or a quaint tower, seem suggestions of a large town's suburbs. But to the southward, after running along one whole length of the Tartar city's walls, you lose sight of the entire mass almost instantaneously, and drop out of urban surroundings into agriculture differing only in its smaller holdings and more numerous houses from the country for many miles to come. As one travels in a singularly straight line for the first three days, there are mountains or hills only to the westward and at quite a distance, while a great cultivated plain extends on three sides much further than the eye can see, every inch covered with crops save for villages and clumps of trees or graves, which latter vie with each other in frequency. The crops are usually planted in long narrow ribbons, one growth closely adjoining another. Of rivers, or even rills, there are practically none until, on the third morning, the great Hoang-ho or Yellow River is sighted, while on the fourth morning one runs right into a greener, lusher region, full of streams and with irrigated fields, marking terraces on the pretty hills through which the road turns and twists; these latter, with their round modelling, being singularly Japanesque. (One sees at a glance why Honan and its coastwise neighbor, An-Hui, should, thus watered, be two of the richest of these central Chinese provinces, of which all the European competitors covet the exploitation.) But the large walled towns all lie in the earlier part of the trip, and are quitted with regret, for they are fine and imposing in themselves, and their crenellated masses give point to the flat surroundings into which they fit so perfectly; unlike Lowell's indictment of many of our American buildings, from which "the wronged landscape stands aloof."

It is only just to the railway as well as to the imminent traveller to note the conveniences or their reverse of the trip. The roadbed is excellent, single-tracked, but with sufficient sidings. The schedule time (not yet in print) is adhered to remarkably, in view of the fact that the road will not be officially opened until January, 1906, at earliest, and that meanwhile travel is not encouraged by the managers.* The runs are made only between sunrise and sunset, and, if the train-hands were so minded, one would be forced to spend the three—possibly four—nights in the cumulative horrors of a Chinese inn. But on the Belgian section, which lies to the north of the Yellow River, one is allowed to bunk down in the cars, which are modern European in construction, a side corridor running from end to end, with first and second-class compartments, and the addition of one for cooking, where the Chinese "boys" warm

*The train hands are all Chinese, from ticket puncher to engineer, though fleeting glimpses of an ununiformed European tell a tale of supervision. At the stations, be they ever so small, there is a Chinese guard, varying from two to a dozen in number, who patrol the platform (apparently armed only with sticks) in much the same fashion as the picturesque guardia civile of Spanish trains, though from those sturdy men it is a far cry to these velvet-booted Celestials, with queues twisted up awry, the tasselled end hanging behind one ear, and straw-brimmed hats cocked askew, while their natural tendency to be round-shouldered has been uncorrected by drill, and is undisguised in the loose long shirt with Chinese characters embroidered on the chest. Yet withal they often have that dignity of the Oriental which is strangely at variance with their being such "figures of fun."

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water and prepare food for their masters. And very cleverly they do so, with charcoal and a small portable earthenware oven without a top. Of water on the train as yet there is none. The first night, travelling southward, is passed at Shunte-fu, the second at Hsin-hsiang-hsien, forty miles north of the river. From there at dawn a construction train runs to the bank, where the fine bridge of almost two miles in length is apparently completed. But, owing to the ever-shifting currents and sandbars of the stream, the foundations have been displaced during this season's heavy floods, and the structure is pronounced unsafe, while its approach on the southern bank is still unconstructed. So the crossing is made in thirty-foot craft—the sails, poling, the variable currents, combined with the rudder and the drag-anchor, all utilized as motive-power; and, finally, half a mile from the shore, the coolies strip to the waist, and, wading in the shallows, draw the boat near the bank. There other coolies carry the unfortunate globe-trotter "pickaback" over the mud flats, at imminent risk of both falling into the slippery footing; and when once on firm ground, one is almost equally agonized by watching the precarious transit of one's luggage. The crossing of the river is most devious, for the changing deeps and shallows and miniature rapids make steering difficult and uncertain. One day, five hours are required; the next, two, the next, but one.

The train sometimes waits until the tricksy river-god or demon has given up its prey, sometimes not; for us it waited an hour and thirty-five minutes; the day before it waited but forty-five, and started when the passengers were within ten minutes of reaching it. Soon after starting, it cuts through the hills, which here form a contrast to the flat northern banks, and, before emerging on the plain again, it passes under hundreds of cave-dwellings still occupied by moderns with prehistoric tastes. On this, the French, section of the line one still finds courtesy, though more restrictions upon the passenger, and at Chu-ma-tien—a tiny place, not on the map—the railway rule is enforced, so that only private-car passengers may, by an extortionate douceur, sleep on the train. There is a good but ominously dubbed inn (The Bar Hotel) kept by a travelled Chinese, who, in memory of America, has two good beds in two clean rooms. But, alas! the station-master recommends the nearer hostelry—a characteristic touch smacking strongly of "squeeze." Of a night spent there, the least said the better, though the Italianized and Romanized host is full of zeal and good intentions.

Yet when all is said of the fatigue and uncertainties of the route, and when one considers the waste of time in going by sea from Tientsin to Shanghai, as well as the greater interest of the land-travel, with its insight into the Chinese and their ways, one would brave it all again. (The natives are evidently of this opinion, for the third class was always crowded, while it has been found advisable to raise the fare of the second class and lower that of the first.) Then, too, in a few months' time, the run of some 800 miles odd will be continuous, with no stops at night and in entire comfort. Meanwhile one has only praise to give the managers of the two lines, who have already produced such commendable results, and have secured such excellent coöperation from their Oriental working force.

EMILY E. F. SKEEL.

Correspondence.

GARDENS OF ITALY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you kindly allow me, in justice to myself, to say, with reference to your review of 'Gardens of Italy,' that the letter-press, which was my share of the book, was written as a series of articles for *Country Life*? It was not until I was correcting the proofs that I received any intimation that these were to appear in book form. The "gossiping, semi-historical tone" (which your reviewer admits to be readable) was purposely adapted to the requirements of a weekly journal.—I am, etc.,

EVELYN MARCH PHILLIPPS.

BOSTON, November 2, 1905.

BOTTICELLI AND ORCAGNA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Can any of your art-historical readers inform me if any evidence has ever been submitted for Botticelli's repainting of Bernardo Orcagna's "Inferno" at Florence? WILLIAM RANKIN.

RICHMOND, MASS., October 24, 1905.

Notes.

The English Dialect Grammar, which formed part of the 'English Dialect Dictionary,' is about to be issued in a convenient crown octavo form by Henry Frowde, while the great Dictionary itself, now completed, is to be offered to the public, through the booksellers, on the instalment plan, until the end of the year. The same publisher will bring out directly the sixth volume of the "Oxford History of Music," 'The Romantic Period,' by the late Edward Dannreuther. H. E. Woolridge's volume on 'The Ecclesiastical Period,' nearly ready, will conclude the series with the year.

Charles Rudy's 'Cathedrals of Northern Spain' is on the eve of publication by L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

Countess Martinengo-Cesaresco has in press a poem entitled 'The Madonna of the Scales—A Calabrian Memory,' which will be sold for the benefit of the sufferers from the earthquake in Calabria. The booklet will be issued by B. H. Blackwell of Oxford (London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.). The price is 1s. net.

Early in November, Antonio Fogazzaro will publish a new novel, entitled 'Santo,' which will close the series that began with 'Piccolo Mondo Antico.' The scene is laid partly at Vicenza, partly at Oria (on Lake Lugano), and at Rome.

The 'Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám' is to be presented to Italian readers through a translation of FitzGerald's version, soon to be published in Venice. A writer in the leading Italian review thinks it necessary to explain that it has passed through many editions in England. The cult spreads.

'The Beautiful Birthday Book' (London: Black; New York: Macmillan) is no misnomer. It is an octavo volume, elegantly but soberly bound, with a pleasing colored frontispiece of the "young person" who is to fill it with the autographs of her friends, and having some other embellishments besides the framing of the date spaces. The design is excellent for stimulus and for preservation.

The same firms unite in a new edition of Alfred Austin's 'The Garden that I Love,' originally issued some ten years ago. The Poet Laureate, in a second preface, deprecates the idea that the illustrations which justify the present venture were hailed as likely to give a fillip to a languishing sale. They will, however, have that effect, for the color designs of George S. Elgood, R. I., are quite out of the common—exquisite, indeed; and in the end the purchaser may prefer them to the touch-and-go discursiveness of the text.

The vamping of old books with decoration is much in evidence this season, and we would ask whether the bad fashion (by no means new) of blotching the type-page with designs in flat tints, pale or otherwise, ought not to be discountenanced and abandoned. An example before us is the reissue of John Luther Long's 'Miss Cherry-Blossom of Tokyo' (Lippincott), in which these colored devices run riot in margin and text. Assuredly they distract the eye and make reading difficult, and in this case are a false imitation of Japanese ornament.

A much better taste has prevailed in Dodd, Mead & Co.'s 'Howdy, Honey, Howdy,' collected poems of Paul Laurence Dunbar, in which the floreated borders in a very pale red becomingly set off the verse, and frame the photographic vignettes, *tableaux vivants* characteristic of the colored folk of whom Mr. Dunbar sings from a full understanding.

Mr. Arthur I. Keller displays a clever pencil, whether point or brush be intended, in his designs for 'His Letter, His Answer, and Her Last Letter,' by Bret Harte (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). The title-page, in color, is very happy, and it is hard to say whether this artist is stronger in color or in black and white. This is a very proper gift-book of the "society verse" (we suppose we may call it) of the late Truthful James. The third poem has never before been published with the other and better-known two.

The same house has brought out 'The Story of Noah's Ark,' an oblong folio with colored plates and a scanty narrative. With his pencil, Mr. E. Boyd Smith is a humorist whose reputation will grow, and these scenes of the building of the Ark, its loading, the omission of the animals which could not or would not go in—dinosaurs, mastodons, etc., who were to furnish the fossils of subsequent ages—the discomforts of the voyage, etc., will please every childish eye and every adult. Such skilful animal drawing is seldom seen in the juvenile domain. Perhaps the last plate of all is as effective as any, showing the Ark stranded, the retreat of the waters, and the joy of the "enlarged" passengers. Mr. Smith is too good a draughtsman to be side-splittingly comical, but he has a humorous imagination. His text is far less droll, and he should procure a literary running-mate for his next venture.

Mr. George Alfred Williams's pen-draw-

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ings to accompany the Baker & Taylor Co.'s generous and very taking edition of 'A Christmas Carol, and The Cricket on the Hearth' are singularly uneven. Those for the latter story fall much below the more than usual excellence of their predecessors. They are all full-page, and serve a decorative purpose, and the frontispiece in color is delicate and well conceived. To be praised, too, is the corresponding plate for 'The Cricket on the Hearth.'

The daily caricaturist, John T. McCutcheon, has long been a power in the West, and needs no introduction to Chicagoans, at least. His 'Mysterious Stranger, and Other Cartoons' (McClure, Phillips & Co.) preserves too much that is trivial and vulgar (not in the most odious sense), and would have been the better for a severe screening. The folio opens with Mr. Roosevelt's Western hunting exploits, and marches (but not always chronologically) with the progress of events, serving as a mirror and chronicle of the time. The Russo-Japanese war cuts a figure here, and there is nothing better than Kuropatkin's "*regret to report that* All is lost save Oyama, and we're trying to find him." Secretary Taft in Japan before the Buddha statue, reminding himself of Napoleon before the Sphinx, and wondering who can name the next President of the United States, is also a happy conceit. The symbolism of "The Wedding of Crown Prince Frederick and Duchess Cecilia," heart-shaped bretzels pierced by an arrow and ringed by a dachshund gripping his own tail, is capital in another way. On the whole, we find the collection rather dreary.

'Representative Essays on the Theory of Style,' chosen and edited by William T. Brewster (Macmillan), is a volume likely to be of good service to academic students of literature and composition. It contains the essays of Newman, De Quincey, Spencer, Lewes, Stevenson, Pater, and Harrison, a clear-headed introduction and adequate notes. This selection of texts is obviously contemporary in its bearing rather than historical, but the authors included represent so many polarities of rhetorical theory that the book may be taken as a fairly comprehensive, as well as an uncommonly wholesome, stylist's enchiridion.

Modern methods of teaching English, which have begotten many *biblia a-biblia*, are sometimes responsible for the making of a real book. Such an one is the volume of 'English Essays' selected and edited by Prof. Walter C. Bronson (Henry Holt & Co.). Twenty-four writers are represented, from Bacon to Stevenson. The lay-reader might complain that Professor Bronson has not been very careful to define the limits of the essay type, so that while such thorough essayists as Cowley and Temple do not appear at all in the book, we have passages from the writings of Burke, Ruskin, and Newman that tend to edification rather than to delight, and are in form and spirit not essays at all. Yet liberally as Professor Bronson has interpreted his title, he has nevertheless contrived to preserve in his selection an admirable unity in variety. The volume is a real book in that it embodies the spirit of three centuries of the best English prose, prose marked by a certain British soberness of thought, and even, as compared with French prose, by a certain uneasy heaviness, yet not seldom visited by wizard lights of imagination, and warmed by a wealth of humor, both delicate and broad, that no similar collection in any foreign tongue could parallel.

The luck of the alphabet has given to Volume X. of the Jewish Encyclopædia (Philipson-Samoscz) several articles of length and interest. Those on the Popes and Rome show the ecclesiastical policy of Christendom towards the Jews, as opposed to the very varying treatment of temporal rulers, and still more to the fanatical outbursts of Christian communities. Russia has, of right, one of the longest articles in the whole work (57 pages). Maps and tables of population, etc., are given. Of a lighter and less melancholy interest is the story of the Rothschild family, from its earliest traced ancestor, in the mid-sixteenth century, and in its two branches of the rabbinate and the world—a story whose artistic value Disraeli appreciated, and which has material enough for a dozen novels. Biographies whose subjects belong to the larger world are those of Rashi, Ricardo, Rubinstein, Saadya, Philo. For his Jewish connection and wealth of Jewish types and portraits, Rembrandt is also added. The frontispiece reproduces a portrait by him, and ten other Jewish heads are shown in black and white. For picturesqueness, the article on Prague, with many good illustrations, easily holds its own, though that on Purim and Purim-plays is untheological enough, and affords refreshing views of life. In folk-lore there is the Sabbath river Sambation and a plenty of spirits—Raphael, Sammael, and the rest. More serious is a good historical article on Reform Judaism from the reform point of view; another orthodox treatment of the same would have been much to the point. The Book of Revelation is reclaimed as a Jewish apocalypse, with a full acceptance of Vischer's hypothesis. There is the usual immense number of biographies; only use can tell whether they are numerous or full enough.

Those who enjoy the mouthings of spiritual self-conceit will be glad to learn that they can find a surfeit of such airy food in Agamya Guru's 'Sri Brahma, Dhàrà' (or 'shower from the highest'), in which the Mahatma kindly condescends to instruct the Occident in the dogmas of Vedanta philosophy. Of argument there is nothing, of assertion there are eighty-seven pages in the form of a catechism, which explains that this world is a delusive charm of the great magician called Màyà, and that Màyà is "an illusive fermentation of an Atom of Bliss in the power of the Highest." The much-enduring student of the catechism is told to "abandon the Ego of sole existence in the Infinite, Eternal Bliss, and be the Omniscience of the Unfathomable Reality." Then the journey will be over and the student will be "the same as the Highest." Luzac & Co., London, publish this amusing screed.

The latest volume of the *Journal of the American Oriental Society* contains a succinct statement by Dr. Peters of the facts regarding the Nippur library and Professor Hilprecht's discoveries, real and alleged. The leading article is by Professor Hopkins, who gives a hitherto unpublished Sanskrit text of the fable of the "Fountain of Youth," together with a study of phases of the same fable in the Occident. Professor Toy contributes a study of an early form of animal sacrifice, and Dr. Blake continues his investigations of the Bisayan dialects—to mention only a few of the fifteen papers in the volume.

There can hardly be a more convenient guide for a beginner who, having busied himself somewhat with ferns, wishes to glance at their relatives, than the book entitled 'The Fern Allies of North America North of Mexico,' by Willard Nelson Clute (Frederick A. Stokes Co.). The illustrations, above one hundred and fifty in number, are by Ida Martin Clute. The text is interesting and the drawings are clear, so that there should be little difficulty in making one's way among these interesting plants, which are the existing representatives of a vegetation that (with the ferns of high and low degree) ushered in our present flora.

Twelve attractive California flowers have been selected for reproduction in color on separate sheets of convenient form. The publisher, William M. Bains, Philadelphia, states, in an accompanying leaflet, that the prints are copies, by the Ives Process, of the water-color drawings of Mrs. Elizabeth Hallowell Saunders. The registering of the three colors, especially the yellow factor, is far from perfect, and therefore the reproductions probably do scant justice to the originals, but the general effect is pleasing, and the handful of pictures is well worth having as a companion to any California botany.

M. H. Carton de Wiart's 'La Cité Ardente' (Paris: Perrin & Cie) is an historical novel concerning Liège and its surroundings in the time of Charles the Bold. It seems to be built on a rich fund of archæological lore, and towards the end of the volume there is a moving love story which vividly and truthfully portrays a high-bred young lady, sublimely courageous and self-sacrificing to the honor and traditions of her family. The book dwells minutely on the apparel and picturesque scenes of the period, and certainly graves a deep impression of the misery of the turbulence prevailing at a time when, if there was no more wickedness than now, wickedness at any rate raised its head more audaciously. The novel will especially interest a person familiar with mediæval Belgium.

The Vienna Academy of Sciences has granted to Prof. Dr. Heinrich Sieveking of the University of Marburg a sufficient sum from the Savigny fund to pursue a detailed study of the mediæval business and commercial records in Italian archives. Professor Sieveking has already made extensive investigations in Genoa, Pisa, and Florence, and at a recent meeting of the Academy gave a full report of the business records of the Medici, which he found in the last-mentioned city. He showed that this famous patrician family not only conducted a complete banking business in all its departments, but equally carried on trade and an insurance business. The trade was international, branch houses being founded in France, England, Germany, Switzerland, Burgundy, Spain, and Portugal. On account of the dangers in sending money, cash payments were practically never made. The experience of the Medici in commercial transactions with princes and potentates, was unsatisfactory. At any rate, Piero de' Medici states that in lending to princes there was more danger than profit. Insurance on the contents of ocean vessels was

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regularly carried, the rate on a voyage across the Atlantic being 11 per cent. A lively business was the management of the funds of German pilgrims to Rome. The Popes, too, dealt with the Medici on a large scale.

The first full census of the Russian Empire was taken in 1897, but the complete results have only now been published. The total population was 125,680,682. The Eastern provinces are very sparsely settled. In Siberia there is only 0.53 person to a square verst, while in the Government of St. Petersburg there are 130.40. The population of St. Petersburg is 1,267,023; Moscow, 988,614; Warsaw, 638,208; Odessa, 405,041; Lodz, 315,209. The average size of a Russian family is 5.7 persons, which is even larger than in Germany, where it is 4.6.

The Rhodes Scholars at the beginning of their second year at Oxford number a little less than 150, out of a possible maximum of 190, there being sixty-seven new students. The qualifying test in scholarship is the Oxford Responsions standard, except in Germany, where the selection is made by the Emperor himself, and in 1904 five of our States or Territories failed to send a qualified candidate. This year the failures have doubled, none coming from Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Montana, Nevada, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, and Wyoming. Among the colonies, only Rhodesia and the Northwest Territory of Canada have not filled up their annual quota. Care has been taken that the men shall not congregate in one college, and they have been evenly distributed throughout the University, Christ Church having seven, the largest number. Their happy assimilation to the academic body was especially commended by Vice-Chancellor Merry in a recent address, in which he congratulated the University on the success which has attended this first year's experience with the Rhodes scholars. The general consensus among the men is that they had better not come directly from schools; that some previous university experience was exceedingly desirable. The long vacation was spent by a considerable number on the Continent with a view to the acquisition of French and German. Many joined reading-classes in England, Scotland, and Wales, and a few Americans and Canadians spent the holiday at home.

The promotion of cotton-growing has been the principal work of the Uganda Company, which was formed two years ago to open up and develop the natural resources of that country. In March, 1904, about two and a half tons of cotton seed of various kinds were distributed among twenty-nine chiefs (representing every province in Uganda), and by them redistributed to a large number of peasants. The result of these trial plantings has surpassed all expectations, and already the hand machinery erected is proving insufficient to cope with the quantity of cotton which is coming in. A small chief, who received thirty-five pounds of American upland seed, brought in more than 1,700 pounds of unginned cotton from that, and reported that he was still harvesting and expected to bring twice the quantity. This means a return of one hundred fold, and Uganda will produce two crops annually. The cotton sent to England proved to be of excellent quality, and there can be no doubt that the soil of Uganda is especially adapted to its cultivation. Reports have been received that the natives of the neighboring province of Usoga have also begun to plant cotton seed, and the suggestion has been made that a power-generating plant be established at Ripon Falls, the outflow of the Nile from Lake Victoria, for the purpose of running ginning machinery. The company proposes to purchase the freehold of 10,000 acres of land for the cultivation of cotton, ramie, and rubber, of which a valuable variety has been found to be indigenous to the country. Its success has been so marked that it has been decided to increase the capital from $75,000 to $125,000. On the board of directors are to be found two bearing the honored name of Fowell Buxton, and a Gladstone.

—There could hardly be a more effective indictment of census-taking methods than is found in the *Atlantic* in a paper by William H. Allen, who served as a special agent in gathering manufacturing statistics in Philadelphia for the census of 1900. It is simple truth, as he shows in ample detail, that his work, and that of his fellow-agents in the same branch, was largely that of "manufacturing" statistics, and not of collecting statistics of manufactures. The woman who took in sewing during a few weeks of the year, a day laborer who earned a few dollars at night during the winter by sharpening skates, an undertaker who trimmed his coffins, a dry-goods dealer who occasionally had an unsalable piece of goods turned into aprons or doll clothes—these are samples of what went into the census mill by scores of thousands, under explicit directions of the Chief, as "manufacturing industries." Still further, the agents were given to understand that each industry must show a "reasonable profit," and schedules were repeatedly returned for alteration if they failed to come up to the specification. It is easy to see what a bulwark of support for "protection and prosperity" the census is sure to be when those who have the power go at it in this systematic manner. Mr. Allen says: "Undoubtedly the feeling was widespread among agents that the object of the census was not to obtain the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, but rather to prove a thesis. The moral tone of the agents suffered depreciation, even in a few days." The country has been rightly shocked at the discovery that insurance premiums have been drawn upon for partisan campaign funds; the time may come when the similar impropriety of using the public revenues for the manufacture of fictitious evidence of the blessings of protectionism will be recognized. Mr. Allen's revelations certainly demand some attention in Congress.

—'The Poems of Keats,' edited by E. de Sélincourt (Dodd, Mead & Co.), is likely to stand as the best edition of the poet for the critical student of poetry as a fine art. The text itself is excellent. Mr. de Sélincourt has wisely left the significant irregularities of orthography as Keats left them; and he has grouped the poems in a logical and significant order, relegating to an appendix certain nonsense rhymes and doggerel ditties that have stood hitherto side by side with "La Belle Dame sans Merci" and the "Ode to Maia." The text stands midway of an Introduction and a body of notes that preserve an even-handed balance between ideal and textual criticism. On the whole, however, the Introduction, with its account of the growth of Keats's art on its imaginative and spiritual sides, is less interesting than the two hundred pages of notes, which trace, with an uncommon union of taste, textual acumen, and common-sense, the literary origins of the Keatsian style. Particularly valuable to the critic is the concluding glossary, in which practically all of the poet's characteristic vocables—four hundred of them—are traced to their probable source in the books Keats is known to have read. This table is of special interest as tending to mitigate the uncritical wonder that has been many times expressed that a "surgeon's apprentice" should write "as if he had mastered the whole history and the frequent variations of the English tongue." As Mr. de Sélincourt pertinently observes, a poet who is steeped in the writings of Chaucer, Spenser, Shakspere, Milton, and Wordsworth has gone a long way towards mastering the English tongue. "The wonder, indeed," as he says, "remains as great, but it is wonder of a different kind—that Keats should have realized so intensely his kinship with his predecessors, and gained his peculiar power of self-expression so that their life became his and their language the only possible utterance for his ideas and moods."

—With Professor Dowden's 'Montaigne' the new "French Men of Letters Series" (Philadelphia: Lippincott) makes a promising beginning in the form of a veteran critic's summing-up of a lifelong familiarity with his theme. In place of the traditional division into the Man and the Work, there is offered here the much more suggestive concurrent, or parallel, treatment, in Montaigne's case so helpful towards the elucidation of his spirit of equitable (though by no means equal) apportionment of time and energy to the too commonly conflicting claims of thought and action. Although the several chapters, from "Childhood and Education" to "Closing Years," cast no new gleam, for the specialist, on either Essayist or Essays, they constitute (to our knowledge) the safest English introduction to the study of the great questioner through their insight into the heart of the work and their revelation of a real affection for the man. In one respect (ch. ix., "The Spirit of the Essays"), Dr. Dowden seems, however, to bear somewhat heavily on the absense in Montaigne of religious fervor, while all the rest of the book demonstrates that this peculiar temperament it is which gives to his meditations their enduring charm of undecisiveness—"cette-cy d'Epicurus, plus voysine a mon style, de transferer la pensee des choses fascheuses aux plaisantes." Some of the translated excerpts suggest a singular "Florio-Cotton-Dowden" blend, not in every case flawlessly accurate, yet, in no instance we have observed, calling for more than marginal correction. What makes this volume specially pleasing is that, in the spirit of the *entente cordiale*, it shows the desire to appreciate, with the graceful help of a

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winning style, the essentially French writer, who nevertheless finds a literary home in all countries.

—Under the energetic direction of Prof. Albert S. Cook as general editor, the series of "Yale Studies in English" (Henry Holt & Co.) continues to thrive and put forth. Three of the more recent issues, Nos. XXV, XXVII, and XXVIII, have been devoted to separate plays of Ben Jonson, namely, "Bartholomew Fair," "Poetaster," and "The Staple of News," which, with "The Alchemist," edited some time since (No. XVII), are, we trust, to be the nucleus of an ultimate complete edition of Jonson that shall prove a credit to American scholarship. Nevertheless, in No. XXVI we note with satisfaction a return to the field of Poetics, previously cultivated to good advantage in this series or elsewhere by Professor Cook and several of his pupils, and a field whose cultivation is of more immediate concern to the advance of literary study in this country. Prof. F. M. Padelford, whose "Essays on the Study and Use of Poetry," being translations from the Greek of Plutarch and Basil the Great, constituted No. XV of the series, gives us in No. XXVI some eighty pages of "Select Translations from Scaliger's Poetics," "in the belief that they will be welcomed by the many students . . . who, through lack of access to the original, have had to gain their impressions of this notable work from the meagre digests in handbooks and histories of criticism." Grateful though such students ought to be toward Professor Padelford, we must be permitted to doubt his surmise that they are "many." As a matter of fact, if we try to measure not the special interest, simply, in work like Professor Padelford's, but the general attention to the subject of Poetics, by the number of courses, historical or otherwise, in literary theory that are now given at American universities, in comparison with those who are devoting their time to less fundamental disciplines—practical rhetoric, history of literature in the ordinary sense, "philology" in the narrower—the students of Poetics are painfully few. Conditions are better, perhaps, yet not greatly better, than four years ago, when Professor Cook, who has striven so vigorously for philosophical methods in the teaching of English, could only say: "*Here and there* [the italics are ours] classes in poetical theory are endeavoring to ascertain what qualities insure the permanence and enduring charm of literature." By the fit though few, every effort like Professor Padelford's will be welcomed. Incidentally we observe that the style of these translations shows an improvement over those in No. XV.

—The publication, a few months ago, by Francesco Sforza, of 'Brani inediti dei Promessi Sposi' (Unpublished Passages from I Promessi Sposi), has led to a second and enlarged edition (964 pages divided into two volumes, whereas the original edition was a single volume of 692 pages). The reading public, it is evident, has not agreed with those critics who indignantly regarded Sforza's book as a profanation of Manzoni's memory in bringing to light what had been, after mature judgment, deliberately omitted, but has found a special literary value in the steps through which the masterpiece developed. The "Brani" bear witness to an incessant correcting, retouching, and polishing, and prove to what a degree Manzoni carried his revision, writing and rewriting a line a score of times, and then, perhaps, after all, not printing a word of it. He was moved, apparently, sometimes by religious scruples, sometimes by æsthetic considerations, or by motives of historical accuracy. In the last edition a number of long additional passages are given, "Il principio del Romanzo," "Una digressione," "Il tentativo fallito del matrimonio clandestino," the "Serva di Don Abbondio," originally called Vittoria, but changed (probably for family reasons) to Perpetua. As a preface to the second volume, Sforza has inserted a chapter, based upon private letters and the journals of the day, on the reception given the 'Sposi.' A number of notes throw light on the conditions existing in the monastery of Monza, on the sources of the characters Don Abbondio, Lucia, the Padre Cristoforo, and Fra Galdino, on the plague and opinions regarding the plague current during the Spanish occupation of Milan. The "Brani" have value also as reflecting Manzoni's personality, his goodness and highmindedness, his modesty and sincerity.

—The ninth edition of 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) takes on a fairly gala appearance, as well it may, both from the honorable age of the enterprise, more than octogenarian, and from the extent to which it has been overhauled—"von Grund aus," as the illuminated title-page reads. Especially to be remarked is the coloring, which is unusually bright and harmonious. A helpful feature is the stamp on the back of each plate, giving not only its number and scale, but a sketch-map of the larger geographic unit of which it is a member, as indicated by a shaded area. This provision fits in with the separate sale of the sheets. Marks of the lapse of time from edition to edition are the multiplication of oceanic cables; the extension (in the South Polar chart) and increased detail of Victoria Land; the elimination of side-maps from the general map of Europe in favor of the southern shore of the Mediterranean, as if to exhibit the extent to which North Africa is becoming a part of the European system; the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal; the side-maps of the several growing European capitals; the new map, "Russia, China, and Japan in Asia" (the late war by its nature leaving superficial boundaries and dominions unaltered); the development of political geography in Africa; the increased scale adopted for the East Indian archipelago. The ninety-five plates of the well-worn edition at our elbow are now replaced by 100. While the map of Western Canada is repeated, the eastern half is no longer annexed to the United States in presentation, but, as is becoming, has a plate to itself. The sheets allotted to the United States have undergone no change in number or division. The Philippines are given a fresh importance on the new East Indian map above mentioned. It would be superfluous to speak of the artistic beauty of these maps, or of their general accuracy and authority. The invaluable index, which will be found to supplement any gazetteer, now fills 237 seven-column pages in fine type.

GEORGE HERBERT'S ENGLISH WORKS.

The English Works of George Herbert, Newly Arranged and Annotated, and Considered in Relation to his Life. By George Herbert Palmer. 3 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1905.

The purpose and spirit of this new and sumptuous edition of George Herbert can best be stated in the opening words of the editor:

"There are few to whom this book will seem worth while. It embodies long labor, spent on a minor poet, and will probably never be read entire by any one. But that is a reason for its existence. Lavishness is its aim. The book is a box of spikenard, poured in unappeasable love over one who has attended my life. When I lay in my cradle, a devotee of Herbert gave me the old poet's name, so securing him for my godfather. . . . For fifty years, with suitable fluctuations of intimacy, he has been my bounteous comrade. . . . I could not die in peace if I did not raise a costly monument to his beneficent memory."

In this spirit of loving devotion Professor Palmer has undertaked a variorum edition of his author. He is, he says, "attempting a kind of critical dictionary of Herbert, in which his meaning may be systematically fixed with reference to the text itself, to the facts of the author's life, and to the literary conditions under which his poetry arose." Professor Palmer confines his edition to the English works, omitting the Latin verse as uninteresting and commonplace.

The three volumes are supplied with the most complete apparatus. There is an outline chronology of relevant historical, biographical, and literary events, and a careful life based on Walton and Oley but reinforced by the study of Herbert's writings and by visits to the places in which he lived. This is succeeded by essays on the Traits of the Man, on the Type of Religious Poetry, on Herbert's Style and Technique, and finally a most important essay on the Text and Order of the Poems. The first volume contains, besides "The Country Parson," Cornaro's treatise on Temperance translated by Herbert, Herbert's notes on the 'Divine Considerations' of Valdesso, all the English letters of Herbert now extant, and Herbert's will. There are four indices to the poems: in the first the titles are arranged alphabetically, in the second in the traditional order, in the third in the arrangement which Professor Palmer has worked out from a study of the manuscripts, and the fourth is an index of first lines—the first ever made for an edition of Herbert. These indices are repeated for convenience' sake in both the second and third volumes. There is no general index to the whole work—a lack which is to be regretted in spite of the clear and careful plan of the work.

Two features of the editing deserve special comment. In the first place, Professor Palmer has reproduced the text of Ferrar's edition of 1633, with rare corrections, and those scrupulously noted; but he provides in the appendices the readings of the two important contemporaneous manuscripts—that in the Bodleian, and that in the Williams Library in London. The second and the more important of the two features of the editing is the rearrangement of the poems into what Professor

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Palmer believes to be approximately their chronological order.

In studying the Williams manuscript, which had been discovered by Dr. Grosart, and whose history seems to be definitely connected with Nicholas Ferrar and Little Gidding, he noticed that it contains but seventy-three of the one hundred and sixty-nine poems of the Bodleian, and that two series of Latin poems were in Herbert's own handwriting. The readings of this manuscript differ notably from those of the edition of 1633 and of the Bodleian MS. After studying these differences, Professor Palmer came to the conclusion that this Williams manuscript was a copy of Herbert's poems, sent probably to Ferrar some time before Herbert had completed his full work. Arguing from this, he holds that poems which are not found in the Williams manuscript are probably from the later period of Herbert's life. Going still further, from a study of the subject-matter of the poems which are found in the Williams manuscript and those which are not, he finds that "no Williams poem contains any hint that its author is a priest, many distinctly state that he is not. A large part of the non-Williams poems deals with the joys and perplexities of the priesthood. It is impossible, then, that the Williams manuscript can have been written at Bemerton." Hence he concludes that the Williams manuscript is a collection of Herbert's poems made a year or two before Herbert's ordination as priest, in 1630, and that it contains only poems from this earlier period of Herbert's life, though other poems of this earlier period may have been held back to be polished, and therefore could not appear until the Bodleian manuscript and the edition of 1633. The evidence, as indeed Professor Palmer is scrupulous to point out, cannot be said to be conclusive; but on the other hand it is cumulative, and may fairly be held to establish a reasonable probability.

On the basis of this very plausible theory, Professor Palmer has divided the poems into three divisions: in the first he puts the poems all of which are found in the Williams manuscript, and which would have been written during Herbert's residence at Cambridge; in the second he puts those poems (some of which are found in the Williams manuscript) which he thinks came from the failure of his hopes for political advancement and his hesitation about entering the ministry; in the third division he puts those poems which he conceives were written at Bemerton after Herbert's ordination in 1630 and during his brief career as a country parson. Within each of these divisions Professor Palmer makes groups in which he has classified the poems in typical order, such as "The Resolve," "The Church," "Meditation," and "The Inner Life" in the first division; "The Crisis" in the second division; and in the third division "The Happy Priest," "Bemerton Study," "Rest," "Suffering," and "Death." It may be doubted whether some of these divisions do not smack too much of modern subjectivity, and whether in such arrangement there be not danger of unconsciously ascribing to a seventeenth-century author modes of thought which are characteristic of the nineteenth. Apart from that danger, however, it must be said that the arrangement justifies itself by its convenience; and that it makes possible something like consecutive reading of Herbert, which, in the arrangement of earlier editions, would have appalled even a devotee. Professor Palmer's enthusiasm over his discovery and his most plausible rearrangement is contagious, but we may doubt whether it has not occasionally led him into assertions which are somewhat too absolute for a matter so conjectural.

The annotations are very thorough. They cover words whose meaning has changed, throw light on dark passages, and give minute cross-references to the use of words or phrases in Herbert's own works and in those of some of his important contemporaries. The study of the matter and the style is exhaustive. Wherever there is a reflection of Biblical phrasing, Professor Palmer points it out, sometimes in cases where the ordinary reader may find the allusion somewhat nebulous. In the case of phrases drawn from the Psalms, Professor Palmer has not remarked that in some cases, as, for example, the first line of "Repentance" (vol. ii., p. 305), and in the twelfth line of "Love," (vol. ii., p. 401), Herbert's phrasing is closer to that of the Psalter in the Book of Common Prayer than to the corresponding passage in the Authorized Version. But the notes are full of matter, almost all of it highly significant; and there are besides many curious details, as, for example, the number of times that Herbert uses the word "star," the fact that the sports mentioned by Herbert are hawking, fencing, bowling, archery, and cards, but not ball-play, hunting, or dancing. Each page of the notes bears evidence of Professor Palmer's devotion and searching study of the works of his spiritual godfather.

And, after all, Professor Palmer need have made no such apology as that we have quoted above. It is worthy occupation for a scholar to edit even a minor author with such exactness and painstaking effort as he has given to this edition, and the world of letters is under obligation to him for his long labors. Herbert, though a minor poet, is established in English literature as are few minor poets of the seventeenth century. His poems have been constantly reprinted for general readers, where those of Giles Fletcher and Wither, even of Vaughan and Crashaw, are hardly known except to professional students of literature. He has not the smouldering passion which flares up every now and then to fuse the obstinate intricacies of Donne's style into a stream of glowing beauty, nor has he the Spenserian enthusiasm and rush of Giles Fletcher. He never attains the soaring beauty of the closing lines of Crashaw's "Flaming Heart," nor the limpid and melodious simplicity of Vaughan at his best, and in general his verse needs no more music than will express the emotions of a man of the world and a scholar. He began his life with a wholly natural ambition for a successful career in affairs of men and state; and when he turned in impulsive disappointment to his little rectory at Bemerton, he carried thither no spirit of mysticism, nor desire for an ascetic and cloistered life. His poems accordingly embody the ideal of the English Church, the *Via Media*, and its aspirations for a religious life which should be not only sincerely pious, but also reasonable and well ordered; and his verse embodies the insatiable and subtle analysis of a student, not the vague and half-light obscurity of the mystic. One feels that for him the universe was adequately thought out. Moreover, it was the age of embroidery; but where the ornament of Lyly and Sidney and Spenser was well termed "bravery," that of Herbert is subdued in color, and gains its richness from minute and complicated tracery. He inherited from Donne, his mother's friend, that delight in reticulated intricacies of phrasing which so roused Doctor Johnson's scorn; but one feels that with Herbert the intricacies are created by the poet's own ingenuity rather than by any profound difficulties of thought. For all the fact that Herbert's style is so archaic, his thought is the thought of many a pious soul of our own day.

The form of this edition is altogether admirable. The print is clear and restful to the eye, the margins wide without being affected, the paper light, and the volumes comfortable to hold. The notes to the poems are printed opposite the poems, so that one has the poem on the right-hand page, the corresponding notes on the left-hand. The illustrations are interesting and apt. The portrait of Herbert, published here for the first time, as the frontispiece to volume i., is a notable addition to literary portraiture. It is, obviously, White's original of his own engraving which was inserted in the 'Temple' of 1674, but the pencil drawing has a delicacy and expressiveness which are largely blurred in the engraving. In it one can see the fastidiousness, the traces of ill-health, the thought, and the courtly qualities which contributed to make Herbert what he was.

MOORE'S RENAISSANCE ARCHITECTURE.

Character of Renaissance Architecture. By Charles Herbert Moore, Author of 'Development and Character of Gothic Architecture.' Pp. xix., 270. With twelve plates in photogravure and thirty-nine illustrations in the text. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This book, which matches in size and general appearance the second edition of the author's well-known 'Gothic Architecture,' is illustrated in the same way by means of "line cuts" in the text, and, in addition, a dozen photographic plates. These plates represent such epoch-making buildings as the great cupolas of Florence, Rome, and London, a Florentine palazzo, a Venetian palazzo, a Veronese palazzo, the banqueting hall (*i. e.*, royal chapel) at Whitehall, in London, and that curious eastern front on the great court of the Ducal Palace in Venice. Of the text cuts a large number, perhaps half, are drawn from the published works of Vignola, Serlio, Gotch, Du Cerceau, and other well-known authors of established treatises on the architecture of the times since the beginning of the Risorgimento in Italy.

There are, accordingly, fewer in proportion of those drawings which we assume to be made by the author's own hand or under his immediate supervision. This, however, is a natural result of Professor Moore's evident feeling towards his two great subjects—the triumphant culmina-

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tion of Mediæval art, and the replacing it by that of the classical revival. In the one case the treatise is, of necessity, enthusiastic—a dithyramb, indeed; in the other it is in the main a long sigh of regret that so much splendid ability was misused. To Professor Moore the art of the Middle Ages—expressive, logical, and significant in all its manifestations—reaches its supreme type of excellence in the architecture which we call, by long accepted usage, "Gothic." In the later epoch, the architecture of the Renaissance is accepted as the unfortunate going astray of artists who were so very strong, so very intelligent, in their better understood labors with the painter's pencil and with the modelling tools of the sculptor.

This is a brief description of the two books in their essential characteristics, without the slightest desire to exalt one at the expense of the other. It may often be more important, as it is more difficult, to express disapproval of the spirit and meaning of a great style than it is to accept a great style as great in every sense and from every point of view. But there is one thing more which must be said, namely, that Professor Moore is not one of those authors who analyze and explain, balance merit against merit, compare style with style, as to virtues and shortcomings, and say continually to their readers that here are different manifestations of the human thought—that there may be many opinions about their relative importance. Such purely tentative and non-assertive ways are not characteristic of our author's work. He is a man of profound and strongly held convictions, and hardly allows a page or a half-dozen pages to pass from under his hand without a reassertion of the most important of them. The book on 'Gothic Architecture' caused much remark by its limiting the term to the French architecture of the years 1165 to 1300, speaking generally, and the setting down of all other architectures than that, whether non-French or French of a later period, as "pointed" architecture as distinguished from Gothic, or else as corrupt, and decadent in the worst sense of that word. But this bold assertion, which has, of course, met with contradiction, especially in England, is not more strongly urged than the continued statement in the new book of the want of constructive skill in the Renaissance architects, the want of logic in the Renaissance designs, the want of that true architectural beauty which comes from logical thinking, and the inexpressibly great superiority over all these later and derived styles of the Mediæval work of France.

It is curious to note how much of the book is taken up by the analysis of the two great cupolas—that of Florence Cathedral, built after 1420, and that of St. Peter's Church, built after the death of Michelangelo in 1564. It is perhaps a mistake to call this last-named building a work of the Renaissance, for the movement in Italy to which that name is properly applied, the Risorgimento, had ceased long before, and the Italians themselves speak of the second half of the sixteenth century as *la Decadenza*—assuredly a very different thing from a "rebirth" of any kind. But this use of the term "Renaissance" occurs generally in English books on fine art, contrary as it is to the more careful wording common in the languages of the more artistic nations—Italy and France; and the use of it in this too indiscriminating fashion is not to be imputed as blameworthy to an American writer. But, disregarding that interesting point of verbal criticism, it is, we repeat, curious to note that 67 pages out of 250 are devoted to the analysis of those two great structures; and that in a book not by an engineer—not by a Rondellet or a Choisy—but by an artist brought up as a painter and turning to the study of architecture on account of its absorbing artistic interest. But, lest the reader should suppose that our words imply any disparagement of the value of these two chapters, it must be said at once that there are many important considerations urged in this text which one would look for in vain in the works of the men brought up to the task of such analysis. The student misses but one important consideration, namely, that of the constructional difficulty caused by the lantern in each case, the enormous weight of which has so much to do with the doubtful stability of those masonry domes. The point is well urged by Professor Moore, that the masonry domes of antiquity, and those of the Byzantine style in its highest development, are sunk low amid masses of masonry which abut them and make them the immovable things they are, while the attempt made at Florence and at Rome to build a great bulging shell raised high in the air upon a "drum" has hardly been repeated in later times. The most famous domes or cupolas of the modern world—St. Paul's, the Invalides, the Val-de-Grâce, and St. Mark's at Venice—are of wood and covered with lead. But a masonry dome is one thing (and we have it in perfection in the Roman Pantheon and in the great church at Constantinople), while a cupola crowned by a lantern is a very different thing. You take a building of solid cut stone and constructed in the most massive way—a building eighty feet high over all, or at least sixty-five feet at the topmost course of cut stone. You put that building, weighing so many thousand tons, but seeming small to you by contrast with the huge bulbous structure which carries it, upon the top of this bulging shell, at the place where the Roman left a huge open *oculus*, and where the Byzantine builder left his shell, incomparably less daring, less boldly raised into the air, at its thinnest, and then you wonder that your dome is not as substantial as you had hoped. You notice cracks; and you are not sure how far they are the result of a little earthquake shock and how far they come of constructive reasons, and you put a huge iron chain, or two or three chains, around the base of your cupola. Well, this discussion of the vast weight of the lantern as the main difficulty does not receive that notice from Professor Moore which would be necessary to establish completely the demonstration of the feebleness of those two great neo-classic structures. On the other hand, the pages which deal with those structures are full of suggestion and of interest, and nothing that has been written on cupolas is more attractive than the comparison between the Florence Baptistery, with its curious semi-Gothic vaulting, and the *ciborio* of Salamanca, with its ribs, which yet do not make it a Gothic structure, and the solid-shell cupolas which form the principal subject of these chapters.

For many persons the most interesting chapters will be those devoted to the palace architecture of Florence, of Rome, and of the north of Italy (Chapters VI., VII., and IX.). The chapter on the architectural carving of the Renaissance is another of extreme interest because of the delicate discrimination made between the work of different men and of different epochs in execution and in design. Chapters XI. and XII. are devoted to the Renaissance architecture of France, and these, though full of acumen, seem also to fail a little in perception of the fact that a new architectural style was in process of formation in the north, during the years between 1460 and 1550—that is to say, during the period from the close of the Hundred Years' War and the restoration of peace in the royal domain of France to the beginning of the religious wars. To a Frenchman, that is the Renaissance; and, as all later styles are known by the names of kings, and are excluded from the Renaissance, so that term includes all the great flamboyant Gothic of France—Saint Maclou at Rouen as well as "the Church of Brou." But this architecture, the mingling of Gothic construction with semi-classical details in some cases (as at Blois and Chenonceau, to take our author's illustrations and them only), the mere avoidance of Gothic construction and the pointed arch in other cases (as in Azay-le-Rideau and Châteaudun), seem to pass unnoticed by our author, whose natural feeling of resentment at the supersession of the glorious and strictly logical Gothic building and Gothic design controls perhaps too strongly his feeling towards a later style.

The chapter on the Renaissance in England is of less importance because there was no Renaissance in England, as, indeed, Professor Moore tells us very plainly. The chapter resolves itself into an account of St. Paul's Church and the curious arrangement of its vaulting within, and its safe but most illogical cupola.

The Duke of Reichstadt (Napoleon the Second): A Biography, Compiled from New Sources of Information, by Edward de Wertheimer. John Lane Co. 1905.

History, unlike Art, delights in violent contrasts. Many of its most prominent figures owe much to the background against which they are set. Seneca and Savonarola, Robespierre and Lucretia Borgia, Thomas More and Marcus Aurelius, stand out in bold relief from their surrounding circumstances and impress our imaginations the more vividly. It is something akin to this that makes of the Duke of Reichstadt—who died young and accomplished nothing—one of the most pathetic and interesting figures of the nineteenth century.

His birth was an event wellnigh prodigious. Napoleon, the great scene-shifter of Europe, had announced a new transformation. The mighty French Empire was no longer to remain the private portion of a successful adventurer, it was to be converted into a European institution. Long married and childless, he announced that he would endow France with a direct male heir; and once more his imperial will triumphed. Josephine was repudiated; the Archduchess Marie Louise was married; and, on the 20th of March, 1811, the promised prince was born. Europe stood spell-

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bound by the cradle of the King of Rome; but, twenty-one years later, only a few friends and attendants watched by the deathbed of the Duke of Reichstadt.

Mr. de Wertheimer's book has much to recommend it, but it is difficult to forgive him for not granting more than a few lines to Napoleon in his most human, most lovable aspect, to Napoleon paternally devoted to the little baby whose cherub head has been so charmingly depicted by Lawrence and by Isabey. Marie Louise, whom elsewhere the author does not spare, was but a clumsy mother, and Napoleon would often snatch the child from her arms and romp with it boisterously in true democratic fashion. How dearly Napoleon loved him is shown by an anecdote placed by Bausset as having occurred only a few hours before the battle of Borodino in 1812. A portrait of the little King of Rome had been sent to the Emperor from Paris. "I supposed that he would put off for a few days the opening of the case that contained the portrait. I was mistaken. . . . I can hardly express the joy the sight of it caused him. . . . His eyes were filled with tears, and he personally called about him the officers of his household and the generals who were awaiting his orders to make them share in the sentiments with which he overflowed." The Emperor then ordered the portrait to be placed on a chair outside his tent, so that the veterans of the Imperial Guard should share their master's joy.

On the Austrian policy during the period of Napoleon's fall Mr. de Wertheimer has much that is new and valuable to offer as a result of his extensive researches in the Austrian archives. His traversal of Welschinger's arguments as to Metternich's desire for a regency under Marie Louise at the time of Ottenfels's mission appears conclusive. At the same time his disparagement of Welschinger is carried too far, and also his neglect of the French point of view. In Méneval's Memoirs, for instance, there is nothing so poignant as the scene between Napoleon's secretary and the four-year-old child when all his French attendants were dismissed to be replaced by Austrian ones. This occurred just before Waterloo, Méneval being allowed to proceed from Vienna to Paris.

"Before leaving I went to the Imperial palace to say farewell to the Prince. I was pained to find him looking serious and unhappy. His charming vivacity and childish prattling appeared to have left him. He did not run up to me as usual, and watched me come in without making the slightest sign of recognition. . . . . Although it was already more than six weeks since he had been under the care of the persons whom I found about him, he had not yet grown accustomed to them, and he seemed to view their faces with suspicion. . . . I asked him in their presence if he had anything he would charge me with for his father, whom I was about to see. He looked at me sadly and significantly without answering, then, withdrawing his hand from mine, he silently retired to the recess of a window. After exchanging a few words with the other persons present, I approached the spot where he stood observing us, and, as I bent to say farewell, struck by my emotion, he drew me to the window, and, looking at me with a most touching expression, said: Monsieur Méva, tell him I still love him."

The poor boy continued to love steadfastly the father whose name was proscribed, whose achievements had to be learned by stealth, whose memory had to be cherished in secret. During the rest of his life he was kept under the strictest supervision, a prisoner of state under ticket of leave. All intercourse with the Bonapartes was forbidden, and even when he was dying of consumption the letters of sympathy addressed to him by his uncle, the ex-King of Holland, and by his cousin, who was to be Napoleon III., did not reach him, but disappeared into the dark recesses of the Metternich archives to reappear only at Mr. de Wertheimer's bidding. The only Bonaparte he ever saw was his cousin, the impetuous Countess Camerata, who reached his presence by stealth one day, fell at his feet, and kissed his hand as that of her lawful sovereign. Was it wonderful that he should have learned the arts of dissimulation, that he should have built castles in the air?

Mr. de Wertheimer's book is a valuable contribution to historical knowledge. The policy of Metternich is in many details strongly illuminated by the documents here utilized for the first time. The author's style, however, is somewhat confused, and his judgment is far from critical. This is especially apparent when he deals with Prokesch, and it is beyond doubt that the Prince's attitude towards the revolution of Romagna was far less innocent than a perusal of Mr. de Wertheimer's book would suggest. On other less important points criticism might be offered, but, on the whole, the author may be congratulated on a painstaking accomplishment. The illustrations are well executed, and the portraits, several of them here reproduced for the first time, are very interesting. That by Euler, showing the Duke's profile on his deathbed, suggests strongly the well-known one of Napoleon taken at St. Helena after death.

The Speeches of Isaeus. With critical and explanatory notes by William Wyse. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1904.

Eighty-three pages of critical introduction, one hundred and seventy-four of Greek text with *apparatus criticus*, and five hundred and sixty-one of commentary—such is the census of the first edition of Isaeus in the English language. It is the work of many years of preparation and execution, by one who has shown himself not infrequently, and particularly in his legal articles in Smith's 'Dictionary of Antiquities,' exceptionally qualified to deal with the subject. And of it may be said at once that it will serve for a long time as an indispensable handbook to every scholar who is interested in the study of Greek testamentary law and our principal exponent thereof, Isaeus.

While the editor has throughout the book done his best, as he says, to meet fairly all textual and grammatical difficulties, yet it is the matter rather than the manner that has received most of his attention. And, as he also gives warning, the leading purpose of his treatment of the matter is

"to show, by analysis of the extant speeches, that ancient scholars had a juster appreciation of this orator's art than is shown by modern writers on Greek Law, for some of whom his unsupported statements appear to carry the authority of decisions of a Supreme Court; and that to extract truth from the arguments of an advocate bent on winning a verdict from an ignorant tribunal is a more delicate operation than many people seem to suppose."

Just here we may remark that who these modern writers are, does not quite appear. It cannot be that Mr. Wyse has in mind such authorities as Thalheim and Bauchet (yet see his note to 1, 4); and Seeliger, with his "simplicity worthy of Tom Pinch," supporting the thesis that Isaeus was a champion of equity against strict law (p. 178), is rather too much of a butterfly to be broken in this proclamation of the preface. We suspect that, rather than the scholar who has committed himself in cold type, it is the average reader who needs the constantly recurring warnings not to trust the advocate's pleading against the now lost presentation of the case of his opponents. Some of these warnings branch out in another direction. Thus, paragraphs 21-25 of the fourth oration may be "impudent" enough, but if we are to see in this sort of impudence "a measure of Isaeus's contempt for the intelligence of an Athenian audience," we shall have to rate the judgment of many a modern advocate on the intelligence of his fellow-countrymen as singularly low. And who, after all, are the ancient scholars that rated Isaeus more justly, that is, lower, than do the moderns? Mr. Wyse cites Dionysius's well-known summary against him: *πρὸς μὲν ἀντίδικον διαπονηρεύεται, τοὺς δὲ δικαστὰς καταστρατηγεῖ, τοῖς δὲ πράγμασιν, ὑπὲρ ὧν ὁ λόγος, ἐκ παντὸς πειρᾶται βοηθεῖν.* But the only truly invidious word here is *διαπονηρεύεται*; and if we are to condemn every lawyer who in a speech "deals unfairly" with his opponent's case, not a few high heads would fall. However, it is easy to be on one's guard against our editor's preoccupation—we had almost said fad—that Isaeus is always in the wrong, and to remember what he seems hardly to recognize, that in almost every important case, especially where equity plays a rôle, there is something worth the attention of the court in what is said for each party to the suit.

On the critical side, in the narrow sense of that term, the edition leaves little to be desired. Its printed apparatus, especially as regards codex Q, is much fuller than that of Thalheim, whose new edition of 1903 appeared after the text and most of the introduction of this were already in print. It is a relief to find that both scholars have independently come to the same conclusion about the only burning question of the text of Isaeus, that A^1 is to be preferred to Apr. Mr. Wyse's expressions (p. lix.) of his doubts of the boldness with which Thalheim restores the effaced readings of Apr. are themselves somewhat bold in view of his own confession (p. xxii.) that he is not a trained observer of palæographical minutiæ, and they ought to be solved by Thalheim's explanation of the scientific procedure of his collation, recently given in a review of this book in the *Wochenschrift*. Of the history and condition of A itself, Mr. Wyse offers us the fullest account to be found anywhere, and it is very welcome. In dealing with crasis and elision in the text, we are glad to see that he simply reproduces the irregularity of A, remarking truly that "even if we could recover the

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original copy of the orations in Isaeus's own hand, there is no reason to suppose that its spelling would reflect faithfully the elisions of contemporary speech" (p. xx.). In respect to conjectural emendations, he has admitted about a dozen of his own into the text, though suggesting many others in his apparatus. Of the former, τοιούτων for τοσούτων (1, 5) must be considered doubtful. It makes the thought smoother, as indeed do most of the admitted conjectures, but this is not always in their favor. In 1, 3 we should certainly prefer to keep ὡς ὑμᾶς instead of accepting Cobet's εἰς ὑμᾶς, for the reasons given by Thalheim in his new edition. Still, we agree with Mr. Wyse in his remark (p. 336) that "the most tenacious upholders of MS. authority are generally people who have not studied MSS."; and of his dictum that "good critics take account of the quality of a document before using it as a criterion of grammatical principles," there can be no better illustration than his accompanying note on the accidental omission of ἄν in manuscripts of various authors.

In the *apparatus criticus* we note a few slips. The certain emendation ἅπαις in Hypoth. 10 was originally suggested not by Fuhr, but by the lamented Ch. Graux in Tournier's 'Exercices Critiques.' In 1, 1, the suggestion κατέλειπε seems due to Hitzig, not Lugebil, and Herwerden has been (as so often in his emendations) anticipated in 1, 3, by another, this time by Frohberger.

In the explanatory notes we are glad to find much that is helpful on the usually neglected arguments to the speeches. A good deal of attention is paid throughout to rhetorical terms, which are apt to be passed over in English and American editions of the authors. Testamentary and other legal points, of course, receive exhaustive treatment; see, for instance, the note on ἐγγύησις (pp. 289-292). Many other things which we should scarcely expect to find here come in for copious annotation; for example, we have more than five pages on the use of horses in Greece, apropos of the word καθιπποτρόφηκας (5, 43)—all interesting enough, but rather "lugged in" to a book like this. In truth, the gathering from far and wide of different views from treatises by all sorts of scholars, and piling them together into a long note, is a trick rather too often played by Mr. Wyse, and sometimes the wood can scarcely be seen for the trees. Thus, in the corrupt passage in 5, 26, we have more than three pages in which all the proposed corrections are repudiated, and nothing new proposed to resolve the problem.

But these are ungrateful strictures on the work of one who has given generously of his best. We wish that he would next turn his attention to a treatise on Greek testamentary law, accompanied by a collection of the sources other than Isaeus. For the production of such a book, much wanted, he is eminently fitted.

New Creations in Plant Life: An Authoritative Account of the Life and Work of Luther Burbank. By W. S. Harwood. The Macmillan Co. 1905.

This volume, prepared by one who is heartily in sympathy with Mr. Burbank, and who realizes some of the peculiar difficulties under which a good deal of his work is carried on, is by far the most satisfactory account we have yet seen of Burbank's successful labors. Here and there the style is a little difficult to follow—in fact, it is worse than difficult, as will be shown by the following extract from the preface:

"The preparation of the volume has been a work of particular pleasure: First, because of the unusual interest which has centred in the development of the material, material which takes its rise in primal places and flows in a broad stream outward; and, second, and paramount, it has been a pleasure because of the contact it has brought with the man whose life and achievements it can but inadequately portray."

We do not know at all what is meant by "material which takes its rise in primal places and flows in a broad stream outward."

In our own country as well as in many parts of insular and Continental Europe, there have been some remarkable plant-breeders whose triumphs are well-known to horticulturists, and whose names will occur to all who are familiar with the progress of gardening and farming. But it is to be doubted whether any one of these enthusiastic and successful plant-breeders has ever conducted his work on a scale of such magnitude and diversity as that which Mr. Burbank has now developed. Part of the prejudice which has existed in certain quarters against his work, has arisen from the fact that his perfervid friends have appeared sometimes to ignore wholly the achievements of these other diligent workers in the same field, and they naturally have resented the slight.

Mr. Burbank's distinct contribution to plant-improvement as a whole consists in the untiring application of well-known principles to vast numbers of progeny and in a wide range. The method is one which demands absolute devotion to the appointed task, and hence it is characterized by a certain amount of what may be called necessary waste. It is the waste which we see everywhere in careful and yet prodigal nature in the endeavor to *keep* the type,

"So careful of the type she seems,
So careless of the single life."

In the earnest endeavor to *improve* the type, by crossing and by selection, the single life and the thousand lives must be sacrificed. It seems to be a great misfortune to our modern science of biometry that means are not at hand to record more carefully than can now be done the essential features of the myriad individuals lost in every experiment in which the improved type is sought. Plainly, Mr. Burbank has no time for this: he is working with the definite purpose of obtaining a single better plant, in any given case. But there has not yet been, so far as we have learned, any thoroughly systematic attempt on the part of any investigator to avail himself of the stupendous mass of material which is now going to waste.

We can recommend this volume as a readable and truthful description of a remarkable career.

Shakespeare and Holy Scripture. By Thomas Carter, Dr. Theol. London: Hodder & Stoughton; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

The student of Shakspere will hardly take up a new work by the author of 'Shakespeare, Puritan and Recusant,' with any very favorable prepossessions. As a matter of fact, an actual perusal of Dr. Carter's latest book, 'Shakespeare and Holy Scripture,' will be likely to confirm most readers in this anticipatory attitude of distrust. With the exception of two brief opening chapters, the work consists of a vast array of supposed parallels between passages in Shakspere and passages in Holy Scripture which the author sets before the reader with only here and there a word of comment. The plays are arranged in a chronological order which, for the most part, differs but little from the arrangements adopted in the most recent works on Shakspere. In the table of the plays according to the "order of their probable composition," one is surprised, however, to find "Richard II." and "Richard III." assigned to 1597, and so dated later than "The Merchant of Venice." Such an assignment is not likely to raise one's opinion of the author's critical judgment. It may be said at once that the same deficiency in judgment in a different application shows itself in the lists of parallel passages. If a passage in Shakspere and a passage in the Bible contain one word which is the same, that is practically enough for our author—the passages are printed here in juxtaposition. Thus, when Jack Cade's rabblement in the "Second Part of Henry VI." (Act iv., sc. viii. 19) cry out "God save the King!" this is commented on as a "direct quotation of Scripture," 1 Samuel x. 24: "And all the people shouted and say'd, God save the King." It is safe to say that the "rabblement" in question would have been even more surprised to learn that they were quoting Scripture on this occasion than M. Jourdain in the "Bourgeois Gentilhomme" when first informed that he had been speaking prose all his life without being aware of it. On a par with the above—or perhaps a little less exact—is the citation of Psalm xx. 5: "Set up the banner in the Name of our God," in illustration of the common asseveration "In God's name" as we find it in the "Third Part of Henry VI." (Act v., sc. iv. 81): "Then in God's name, lords, be valiant," Or, finally, take the words of Guiderius in "Cymbeline," Act iv., sc. ii. 191, "All solemne things should answer solemne accidents." How can Dr. Carter pretend to connect these words with Psalm xlii, 7: "One deepe calleth another deepe"? In consequence of this fatal want of judgment, the book may be pronounced to be practically valueless. The most that can be said in its favor is that future editors of Shakspere, by sifting carefully this huge bulk of chaff, may possibly find in it a few grains of wheat—a few genuine parallels hitherto unnoticed; but a cursory examination does not inspire one with much hope even of that.

With regard to the two opening chapters, in one of them Dr. Carter sets forth, in line with his previous work, views of Shaksperes's leanings towards Puritanism which are not likely to meet with acceptance; in the other he urges that Shakspere's knowledge of the Bible was gained from the Genevan version. This being the version in commonest use in the years when Shakspere's plays were written, in the main there is no objection to the view here expressed—indeed, the evidence, generally speaking,

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confirms it; but reference to such an accessible work as Anders's 'Shakespeare's Books' (p. 201) would have warned the author against putting his statement in an unqualified form.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, George Burton. The History of England. Vol. II. Longmans. $2.60 net.
Allen, Frank Waller. Back to Arcady. Boston: Herbert B. Turner & Co.
Armstrong, Walter. Sir Joshua Reynolds, First President of the Royal Academy. Scribners. $3.50 net.
Austin, Alfred. The Garden that I Love. Illustrated. Macmillan Co. $2.
Bábar-Náma. Edited by Annette S. Beveridge. London: Bernard Quaritch.
Ball, Robert Stawell. A Popular Guide to the Heavens. D. Van Nostrand Co.
Barnes, James. Outside the Law. Appleton. $1.50.
Beaumont and Fletcher. Edited by Arnold Glover. Vol. I. Macmillan.
Bérard, Victor. The Russian Empire and Czarism. Translated by G. Fox-Davies and G. O. Pope. London: David Nutt.
Bielschowsky, Albert. The Life of Goethe. Translated by William A. Cooper. Vol. I. Putnams. $3.50 net.
Bigelow, Poultney. The German Struggle for Liberty. Harpers. $2.25 net.
Binns, Henry Bryan. A Life of Walt Whitman. London: Methuen & Co.
Bond, A. Russell. The Scientific American Boy. Munn & Co. $2.
Breasted, James Henry. A History of Egypt. Scribners. $5 net.
Brown, Caroline. Bold Robin and his Forest Rangers. Dutton. $1.25.
Browning, Robert. The Pied Piper of Hamelin. A. Wessels Co.
Bryan, Elmer B. The Basis of Practical Teaching. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Burdick, Lewis Dayton. Oriental Studies. Oxford, N. Y.: The Irving Co. $1.
Capen, Oliver Bronson. Country Homes of Famous Americans. Doubleday, Page & Co. $5 net.
Chamblin, Jean. Lady Bobs, her Brother and I. Putnams. $1.25.
Christmas Annual for Young People. McLoughlin Brothers.
Clark, T. M. Architect, Owner and Builder before the Law. Macmillan Co.
Conant, Charles A. The Principles of Money and Banking. 2 vols. Harpers.
Cooke, Edmund Vance. Chronicles of the Little Tot. Dodge Publishing Co. $1.50.
Crawford, F. Marion. Fair Margaret. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Crosby, Oscar Terry. Tibet and Turkestan. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Cruickshank, J. Graham. Negro Humour. Demerara: The Argosy Co.
Davenport, Willard Goss. Milton Blairlee and the Green Mountain Boys. The Grafton Press. $1.50.
Exporter's Encyclopædia. $3.
Facts and Fancies for the Curious. Edited by C. C. Bombaugh. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Finley, Martha. Elsie and her Namesakes. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Fitzgerald, Sybil. In the Track of the Moors. Dutton. $6 net.
Geil, William Edgar. A Yankee in Pigmy Land. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50 net.
Golden Goose, The. Translated by Eva M. Tappan. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Gould, George M. Biographic Clinics. Vol. III. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. $1 net.
Great Portraits. Edited and Translated by Esther Singleton. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60 net.
Grimm's Fairy Tales. Translated by Mrs. Edgar Lucas. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50.
Howe, Maud. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2 net.
Huffcut, Ernest W. The Elements of Business Law. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Il Libro d'Oro of those Whose Names are Written in the Lamb's Book of Life. Translated by Mrs. Francis Alexander. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $2 net.
James, Henry. English Hours. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Joys of Friendship. Edited by Mary A. Ayer. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1 net.
Karpeles, Gustav. Jews and Judaism in the Nineteenth Century. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
LeBaron, Grace. The Children of Bedford Court. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 75 cents.
Lector, Oliver. Letters from the Dead to the Dead Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Romances of Old France. The Baker & Taylor Co.
Lodge, George Cabot. The Great Adventure. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Long, John Luther. Miss Cherry-Blossom. New ed. Philadelphia: Lippincott.
Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish. Edited by W. D. Howe. Macmillan Co. 25 cents.
Mabie, Hamilton W. The Great Word. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 net.
Materlinck, Maurice. Old-Fashioned Flowers. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20 net.
Macfarland, Charles S. Jesus of the Prophets. Putnams.
Major, Charles. Yolanda. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Mims, Edwin. Sidney Lanier. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.
Noyes, Walter Chadwick. American Railroad Rates. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50 net.
Oswald, Eugene. The Legend of Fair Helen. Dutton. $2.50 net.
Outram, James. In the Heart of the Canadian Rockies. Macmillan Co. $3.
Pope, G. U. A Catechism of Tamil Grammar. No. II. Henry Frowde.
Princess Priscilla's Fortnight. Scribners. $1.50.
Proctor, Edna Dean. Songs of America. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Records of the Town and Selectmen of Hanover. N. H. Vol. I. Hanover, N. H.
Red Romance Book, The. Edited by Andrew Lang. Longmans. $1.60 net.
Repplier, Agnes. In Our Convent Days. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10 net.
Richman, Irving Berdine. Rhode Island. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10 net.
Roberts, E. S., and E. A. Gardner. An Introduction to Greek Epigraphy. Part I. Macmillan Co.
Robertson, Morgan. Land Ho! Harpers. $1.25.
Rowland, Henry C. The Mountain of Fears. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Russell, John Wellesley. An Elementary Treatise on Pure Geometry. Henry Frowde.
Russell, Thos. H. Faulty Diction. Geo. W. Ogilvie & Co.
Satchell, William. The Toll of the Bush. Macmillan Co.
Saxe, John Godfrey. Selections from the Poems of. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Scott, Robert F. The Voyage of the "Discovery." 2 vols. Scribners. $10 net.
Selous, Edmund. The Romance of Insect Life. Philadelphia: Lippincott. $1.50 net.
Smith, E. Boyd. The Story of Noah's Ark. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2 net.
Snell, F. J. The Age of Transition. 2 vols. Macmillan Co. $1.
Spielmann, M. H., and G. S. Layard. Kate Greenaway. Putnams. $6.50.
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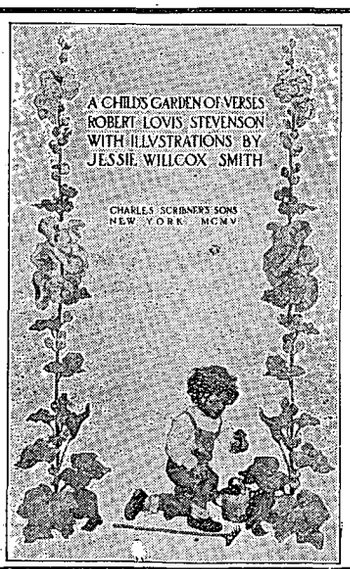

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